# MODERN METHODS AND TECHNIQUES IN GUIDANCE

EDUCATION FOR LIVING SERIES

Under the Editorship of

H. H. REMMERS

# Modern Methods and Techniques in GUIDANCE

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# EDITOR'S FOREWORD

Our society was until very recently predominantly an agricultural society. If we go back no further than the turn of the century we find a nation that, vocationally, was composed largely of small independent producers. Science and the technology based on it have led to industrialization with well nigh explosive force so that at this writing less than one in five adult workers is employed in agriculture.

In our predominantly agricultural society the home was *par excellence* the educational institution concerned with effective living, with only a minor assist from the school in which the three R's were a chief curricular concern. Individual and community life was simple and uncomplicated.

Life in modern society, however, is vastly complex and beset by contradictions, uncertainties, and ambiguities for children who must somehow find their place in it. Education for effective living in modern America has therefore placed upon the school responsibilities greatly in excess of the simple tasks of the teacher in the little red school house which children attended when they were not needed in the economy of the farm.

Developments in the behavioral sciences also have contributed to making the tasks of education rapidly more complex. The strains and stresses related to the contradictions, uncertainties, and ambiguities of life as perceived by the growing generation have fortunately led to increasing light from psychology, cultural anthropology, psychiatry, and sociology out of which the relatively new and rapidly growing profession of the guidance counselor has been and is evolving.

The guidance services envisioned in this book by Professors Willey and Andrew are well stated in their definition: "By means of guidance the individual is assisted in making a wholesome, worth-while adjustment to his world. More specifically, the individual must be given help in choosing dynamic, reasonable, and worth-while objectives, in formulating plans of action to accomplish these objectives, in meeting crises

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and solving problems which appear to be blocking plans, and in sustaining personal enjoyment in self-direction of his life so that goals may be efficiently solved."

The book gives a comprehensive discussion of all aspects of the problems of a guidance program: personnel and their required qualifications, techniques and procedures in the guidance process, how to get started on such a program, and the like. All school personnel, prospective or in service—teachers, administrators, counselors—will profit from familiarity with the content of the book, concerned as it is with "attaching the emotions to the right objects, ideas, and persons."

That these matters are urgent is attested by such things as increasing delinquency, increasing divorce rates, and the large and growing proportion of inmates of mental hospitals. For these things there are no panaceas, but intelligent and responsible study and professional guidance service give promise of contributing greatly to their amelioration and pointing the way to constructive, healthy, and emotionally mature living. To these ends Professors Willey and Andrew have labored well.

H. H. REMMERS

Rooted deep in the behavioral sciences of psychology, sociology, anthropology, and education, the field of guidance has been characterized by confusion in terminology, in organizational plans, and in objectives. In this book the authors hope to assist the reader in clarification.

A successfully organized guidance program can evolve only after a satisfactory guidance point-of-view has been well developed by the entire school staff. The guidance concept becomes more definite and meaningful as each staff member can refer to specific situations from which the generalized concept was formed. Although the authors prefer to use the phrase "guidance services" as a convenient description of the guidance program, the concept of guidance must be regarded as more than a mere composite of isolated services or activities. Guidance touches every aspect of an individual's personality and involves his whole life. Concerned with principles of adjustive behavior of normal individuals, guidance should be integrated and coördinated with the total educational program.

It is assumed that some of the basic guidance services may be out of the jurisdiction and qualifications of the classroom teacher. The role of the counselor, therefore, becomes vital for an effective guidance program. Nevertheless, an introductory textbook on guidance should also grant sufficient attention to those procedures useful to the teacher.

Guidance should begin with the child's entrance into school and continue beyond the child's school termination. Increased attention, therefore, is directed to the elementary as well as to the secondary school guidance practices. Throughout the book, emphasis is placed not only upon knowledge necessary to understand the child, but also upon techniques for gathering and methods of using this information. A unique feature of this text is noted in the chapters pertaining to the use of guidance techniques in health and learning adjustment.

The approach adopted in the text being "synthetic" and "eclectic," the viewpoints of many authorities are reviewed with an attempt to select

and integrate desirable features of each author. A proper balance is sought between the practiced techniques and the theoretical implications of these techniques.

The authors believe this book may be suitable for: (1) a textbook in an initial guidance course, elementary or secondary, with introduces teachers and prospective counselors to the guidance field and techniques; (2) a handbook for experienced counselors; (3) a text and reference source in any program of in-service training; and (4) a textbook in specialized areas of guidance in which the teacher may find certain parts of the content especially helpful. For example, a teacher of a course in individual analysis might profitably use Parts II and III along with the reference material given at the end of each chapter.

Part I of this textbook is desired to orient the reader to the concept of guidance as an integral part of the educational system, including the history and trends of guidance, the personnel of the guidance program, and the procedures for beginning a guidance program. Part II presents techniques for understanding the individual, including a consideration of what we need to know about the individual and a description of the techniques of collecting data on personality, achievement, aptitude, interests, and mental ability. Part III discusses individual techniques of group guidance not only as they may be used to improve the group as a whole but also as they may be used to improve individual human relations. Influenced by the current emphasis upon group processes in assisting the individual to change his behavior, Part IV presents a new point of view in the area of group guidance. Part V reviews the techniques of recording data and of evaluating the results of guidance services.

R. D. WILLEY
D. C. ANDREW

March, 1955

## PART I

## ORIENTATION TO THE CONCEPTS
## OF GUIDANCE

# CHAPTER 1

# Guidance as Part of the Educational Program

MANY educators think guidance has been talked about and written about so extensively that it has been made too thin and fine to withstand the strength of attack by thrifty and budgetary minded tax-reduction leaguers and state governors. Too much contention, they say, has made the truth of guidance values incomprehensibly intricate and doubtful. Although the authors have no purpose of making "Specious and fantastic arrangements of words by which man can prove a horse-chestnut be a chestnut horse"—as Abraham Lincoln said—they do maintain that "guidance" is a useful and needed concept in American public education. With proper tools and techniques it can strengthen the aims of education and provide means of accomplishing elementary and secondary school objectives.

### AN ANCIENT STORY IN A MODERN SETTING

At least three writers (10, 1, 30) have seen an apt analogy in an ancient story recorded in the Bible and the apparent state of confusion in the philosophy of guidance. As the Bible story narrates, the sons of Noah became ambitious to see and know all and to accomplish their purpose they started to build a tower that would reach to Heaven. Such threat was this to Jehovah that he went down and "confounded their speech" and "scattered them abroad from thence upon the face of the earth." The common aim of organized human effort can often be disintegrated by lack of understanding because of uninterpretable speech.

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If one continues to read this chapter he will be aware of this confusion in guidance but the authors hope that clarification will result from the presentation of the historical background of guidance, followed by an analysis of issues and principles. "Consider the past and you will know the future" is a proverb not to be considered lightly.

In 1932, two eminent educators referred to a state of general bewilderment in guidance and in the preface of their book (26) said they wished to present a "concept of guidance which the authors hope will aid in clarifying the rather confused thinking and practice in the field, a concept which is neither restricted to vocational guidance at one extreme nor extended to make guidance synonymous with all education at the other."

The confusion was evidently not cleared because in 1935 Kitson (24) wrote:

> Some members [of the NVGA] assert that vocational and educational guidance, if properly carried on, cover all that needs to be called guidance. Others insist that this is only one form of guidance; and that there are many other forms of "guidance," e.g., "directing," "leading," "orienting." When we examine guidance practices in schools we see similar confusion. The term is applied to a weird assortment of unrelated activities: counseling of individuals on any matter, group instruction in any subject, home visiting, trips to factories, probation work, teaching pupils how to study, chaperoning dances, club leadership, the giving of tests—whatever cannot be easily classified is called guidance. Then, too, everybody and anybody performs these services; principals, assistant principals, school psychologists, visiting teachers, deans, class advisers, homeroom teachers, teachers of subject-matter courses, all may claim to be doing guidance.

Four years later (1939) we find evidence of continued dissatisfaction and confusion. "One of the most critical issues of guidance and personnel work today is the confusion among leaders in the field as to the meaning of these terms and the place of guidance and personnel work in an education program. We use the same words but do not speak the same language! No wonder our public is confused and progress so slow" (27).

"The Tower of Babel had nothing on the guidance and personnel field when it comes to a need for a common language. We must agree among ourselves on what we are talking about." That the confusion has not been clarified is well illustrated in an article published in 1953 by Maclean (30).

tongues. The reports of the many meetings over the years, the articles in the many journals that deal with counseling are evidence enough that its purposes, hypotheses, constructs, its methods, its tools, and techniques ramify and proliferate in all directions. A review of the field's personnel further blazons its diversity. It has the deans of men and women who are either dying out from the very weight of their ponderous authority of older times—like the dinosaurs and the pterodactyls—or are being transmuted into deans of student personnel. It has the registrars, those Johnny Inkslingers of education, the bookkeepers and the toters-up of credits, grades, honor points, who once used to consider themselves the very central control tower over all guidance in the academic and personal lives of students. It has clinicians for physical health, for mental hygiene, for speech correction, for improvement in reading and how to study, and for clinical one-to-one, and group guidance. It has psychometrists, sociometrists, and statisticians, designers of research in the field, and a variety of evaluators. Each of these gives tongue to his thinking, his needs, his demands, often in words of strange new coinage or old, familiar terms given in new twists of meaning. To anyone who has not grown up with all this, it must seem an unbelievable turmoil and confusion confounded.

## HISTORICAL CORNERSTONES OF THE GUIDANCE MOVEMENT

A complete understanding of guidance as it exists today can develop only as we review throughout the last five decades the historical highlights of the "guidance movement." While guidance has always existed, it was not until the first decade of the twentieth century, that it changed from an inherent and unconscious system of the transmittance of knowledge and culture from the old to the young to a "guidance movement" with conscious purpose, distinctive nomenclature, and organization.

The hungry, poorly clothed and housed segments of society during the years between 1900 and 1910 received the attention of benevolent individuals and of social and philanthropic groups. The work of these humanitarian groups resulted in various forms of organized guidance in the form of numerous experiments, the most prominent of which originated in Boston during the early years of the century.

### Frank Parsons in Boston

An experiment in Boston sponsored by a wealthy philanthropist, Mrs. Quincy A. Shaw, and directed by Frank Parsons, introduced the first organized program in guidance to receive national recognition. The aim

of the experiment was to develop "all-round manhood" by giving "systematic training of body and brain, memory, reason, and character, according to individual differences." The origin, purpose, methods, and early development of the program were described in a book published by Parsons in 1909 (33).

In this book we find the first definition of guidance in terms of vocational fitness; i.e., vocational guidance is "the choice of a vocation, adequate preparation for it, and the attainment of efficiency and success." It is of interest to note that this definition places the decision of choice upon the one being guided. Assistance was given the individual by guiding him in three procedures: (1) obtaining a clear understanding of self, i.e., an understanding of abilities, aptitudes, interests, ambitions, resources, and limitations; (2) acquiring a knowledge of occupations, their opportunities and their requirements; (3) developing the ability to reason with the information obtained so that wise decisions can be made.

The work of Parsons was continued and promoted by Meyer Bloomfield [1] who was instrumental in establishing the Vocational Bureau of Boston in 1909 and the Public School Bureau of Boston in 1912, and in issuing the call for the first National Conference on Vocational Guidance in 1910. The Boston experiment was philanthropic and humanitarian in nature and thrived without initiative from the public schools.

*The Guidance Specialist Is Recognized*

Contemporary with the interest in guidance in Boston was the development of the guidance movement in Brooklyn, New York. Eli W. Weaver of the Boys' High School of Brooklyn recommended that vocational advisers in the public schools should be allowed sometimes to attend to placement. Without additional pay, many teachers were already helping students to discover their individual capacities and to plan their careers. In some cases, provision was made for employer contacts, for placement, and for employment supervision. This was one of the first recorded examples of recommendations for a special guidance worker with additional pay for his services.

In 1913 at Cincinnati, Ohio, six conditions were stipulated for a successful vocational guidance program in a large school system:

[1] Probably the best reference giving an account of these early developments is *Guidance and Personnel Service in Education* by Anna Y. Reed, Ithaca, New York, Cornell University Press, 1947. The authors are much indebted to this volume for a description of these early experiments.

1. The appointment of a director with time for supervision.
2. A school organization where each pupil will be permitted guidance from at least one teacher of the right type.
3. An intelligent and sympathetic helpfulness on the part of the teacher.
4. A logical analysis of the personal characteristics of each pupil.
5. An understanding of the task of the school in preparing a pupil for his life career.
6. The construction of a school curriculum to the vocational needs of the community.

The main characteristic of these early efforts in guidance in Brooklyn and Cincinnati was the large number of decentralized guidance efforts.

## A Centralized System of Guidance Is Formed

In contrast to limiting the guidance concept to vocational training and planning, the holistic concept of guidance was recognized in the first decade of the century. When Jesse B. Davis was appointed director of vocational guidance for the city of Grand Rapids, he established a vocational bureau. He accepted personality culture and character development as well as vocational guidance within the regular curriculum subjects. The guidance program included educational, civic, and social guidance areas and emphasized the development of moral responsibilities in relation to business associates and the community in general.

Near the end of the first decade of the century a vocational bureau was also recommended in Philadelphia with a recognition of the importance of vocational guidance as a factor in the solution of the many personal problems confronting the pupil at the termination of his school career. Other vocational bureaus and departments maintained and managed under the public schools were recommended and established in Chicago, Minneapolis, Omaha, and Seattle.

### THE SOURCES OF MOMENTUM OF THE GUIDANCE MOVEMENTS

Guidance today is an interdisciplinary product and can be more readily understood if we examine three or four strongly organized attempts to improve the social, economic, and political conditions of the early twentieth century. Let us first consider the mental hygiene movement.

## The Mental Hygiene Movement

The National Committee for Mental Hygiene was founded in 1909 as a direct result of Clifford W. Beers' book, *A Mind That Found Itself*,

published in 1908. Confined in various hospitals for the insane for three years and ultimately regaining his mental health, the author fully describes his accurate memory and acute perception of everything that happened to him, his feelings toward the treatment imposed upon him, and the processes by which his perverted mind finally corrected itself.

The direct words of this writer describing his childhood life clearly illustrate the close relationship of contemporary guidance concepts to mental hygiene:

> The first years of my life were, in most ways, not unlike those of other American boys, except as a tendency to worry made them so. Though the fact is now difficult for me to believe, I was painfully shy. When first I put on short trousers, I felt that the eyes of the world were on me; and to escape them I hid behind convenient pieces of furniture while in the house and, so I am told, even sidled close to fences when I walked along the street. With my shyness there went a degree of self-consciousness which put me at a disadvantage in any family or social gathering. I talked little and was ill at ease when others spoke to me.
>
> Like many other sensitive and somewhat introspective children, I passed through a brief period of morbid righteousness. In a game of "one-old-cat," the side on which I played was defeated. On a piece of scantling which lay in the lot where the contest took place, I scratched the score. Afterwards it occurred to me that my inscription was perhaps misleading and would make my side appear to be the winner. I went back and corrected the ambiguity. On finding in an old tool chest at home a coin or medal, on which there appeared the text, "Put away the works of darkness and put on the armour of light," my sense of religious propriety was offended. It seemed a sacrilege to use in this way such a high sentiment, so I destroyed the coin. I early took upon myself, mentally at least, many of the cares and worries of those about me. Whether in this I was different from other youngsters who develop a ludicrous, though pathetic, sense of responsibility for the universe, I do not know. But in my case the most extreme instance occurred during a business depression when the family resources were endangered. I began to fear that my father (than whom a more hopeful man never lived) might commit suicide. . . . With grown-ups, I was at times inclined to be pert, my degree of impudence depending no doubt upon how ill at ease I was and how perfectly at ease I wished to appear. . . .
>
> The last week of June, 1894, was an important one in my life. An event then occurred which undoubtedly changed my career completely. It was the direct cause of my mental collapse six years later and of the distressing and, in some instances, strange and delightful experiences on which this book is based. The event was the illness of an older brother, who, late in

June, 1894, was stricken with what was thought to be epilepsy. . . . Now, *if a brother who had enjoyed perfect health all his life could be stricken with epilepsy, what was to prevent my being similarly afflicted?* This was the thought that soon got possession of my mind (3).

The mental hygiene movement has devoted itself to the amelioration of social conditions as they pertain to the question of mental integrity. Its general purpose is to educate the public to the causes, prevention, and adequate treatment of abnormal mental conditions. The first specific objective was to establish relations between patients who are about to be discharged as cured, or partially cured, and their outside work. This requires the establishment of a wise supervision of the convalescent or rehabilitated patients in their social relations. The second objective was to educate the public to correct ideas about sanity, mental balance, mental hygiene, and right living; a third objective was to effect legislation to aid those unfortunate people to live in "mental unsoundness." These purposes have been partially realized.

## The Child Guidance Movement

Closely related to the mental hygiene movement and to the development of the nursery school with its renewed emphasis on parent education was the birth of the child guidance clinic. Guidance in the elementary school today is so closely related to the "child guidance movement" that an historical retrospect is necessary for complete understanding of the guidance field.

The Chicago Juvenile Psychopathic Institute, founded by Dr. William Healy in 1909 under the sponsorship of Mrs. W. F. Dummer, was the pioneer child guidance clinic. The aims of these clinics have changed very little throughout the years. They are agencies "for bettering the adjustment of children to their immediate environment, with special reference to their emotional and social relationships, to the end that they may be free to develop to the limit of their individual capacities for well-balanced maturity" (40).

The guidance clinic

selects for intensive study and treatment children within the wide range of what is called normal intelligence whose difficulties are traceable to emotional imbalance, whether in the child or in the parent; or to a lag between the child's capacity and the demands made upon him, of which educational maladjustment *is a common example*; or to destructive influences in the social environment. Children are brought to the clinic because

of unacceptable behavior—disobedience, stealing, lying, temper tantrums, truancy, and the like; because of personality problems such as nervousness, inattention, shyness; because of school difficulties—poor work, retardation, indifference, and so on; or because some crisis in the child's life—transfer from a broken home, for instance—makes it desirable to have a technical analysis of his capacities and qualities as a guide for constructive action . . . (40).

The guidance ventures in many cities of the United States grew out of interest in school retardation, truancy, and delinquency. One of the best examples is the city of Seattle. After an analysis of eighteen hundred juvenile court cases it was found that school failure and retardation were accompanied by truancy and minor delinquencies. Further investigation led to case studies of all records, personal interviews, and studies, of home, school, and community. These studies led to the establishment of The Experimental Seattle School Guidance Bureau under the Board of Education 1913-1916 (38).

Thus leadership in the child guidance movement originated in philanthropic aims directed by professionally trained and experienced workers. Regardless of the direction the guidance movement may take in the future one of its cornerstones has been the child guidance clinic.

### The Educational Guidance Movement

We shall use the phrase "educational guidance movement" to describe the interest in tests, educational surveys, and individualized instruction as forces which stimulated the guidance movement.

During the early years of the twentieth century there arose a keen interest in the construction and use of tests in the study of the individual. Before 1900 Sir Francis Galton, fired by the ambition to unravel the problems of human heredity, undertook to measure individuals on a large scale. Such names as Cattell, Binet, Terman, Otis, Thorndike, Spearman, and Thurstone are outstanding in the testing movement. Although it has had many revisions, the Binet test of intelligence introduced into this country by Goddard in 1911 is still one of the standard tests in general use. Guidance depends upon the accuracy of prediction of human behavior. The attainment of an individual on a test or examination gives an indication of what he has done and what he will do. The more complete the record to the present, the better the prediction and the better the guidance.

The school readily accepted the challenge to study the child by measur-

ing his achievement, his capacity, and such other personality traits as interest, desires, attitudes, and beliefs. Administratively, an attempt was made to redistribute pupils in groups on the basis of test scores. The introduction of standardized tests gave emphasis to a common definition of guidance as individualized education.

## The "Personnel Movement" in Business, Industry, and Government

In the middle and late 1930's guidance was dominated by economists who were interested in the economic problems of unemployment, placement, occupational trends, and vocational inability. Historically, this interest developed because of the invention of machinery, accompanied by a rapid increase of industrialism, occupational specialization, distribution and consumption of goods, and the resulting increase of leisure-time activities of workers.

Coexistent with these socio-economic interests was the rise of the personnel movement in business, industry, and government. In these economic and political enterprises it has been found that increase in quality and production has been made possible by granting more attention to the happiness and welfare of employees. Guidance is given as an aid to the employee to help him become more effective in the enterprise in which he is engaged. Personnel work consists of the proper selection of workers and placement of them in the type of work in which each can be most effective; then providing them aid in adjusting to the job and the fellow workers. Anything may be included which might help the worker to become well adjusted and satisfied. For example, it may attempt to improve the physical conditions in the plant that may interfere with effective production.

### SYNTHESIS OF INFLUENCES

Much more space than can be allotted here would be required to trace in detail the emergence of the principles upon which modern guidance and personnel work is advancing. From the brief explanations presented, however, we may conclude that the organized guidance movement as it exists today has grown out of the humanitarian principle of universal brotherhood and the twentieth century's growing interest in individual differences.

fields. In some situations one of these disciplines may conceivably absorb all of what may be called guidance; in fact there is real danger that the influence of a discipline may become so strong that it will engulf everything that is called guidance to the point where guidance as a field no longer exists. In some localities this appears to have resulted from the influence of psychological organizations or educational innovations. It is unfortunate when such conditions develop because guidance embraces enough of professional significance to exist in its own right.

## What Is Guidance?

In reviewing the definitions of guidance published in the literature for the past two decades we readily note the points of agreement and disagreement in what guidance is and what it is not. The following definitions represent a sampling of principles, vocabulary, and issues as found in books and periodicals on guidance since 1932:

> Student personnel work, as a whole, may be regarded as a means whereby the individual's total educative experience may be most effectively related to his personal needs and potentialities . . . services would include all the services now recognized as guidance. . . . If, however, the concept of personnel work as the work done by the group of workers designated as "personnel workers" is accepted, many guidance activities would not be included. (A. B. Crawford, "Educational Personnel Work: The Field and Its Function," *Personnel Journal* (April, 1932), 10:405–410.)

> The guidance concept is defined as having two main phases: (1) the distributive, and (2) the adjustive phases. The aim in the former phase is to distribute youth as effectively as possible to education and vocational opportunities, and in the latter to help the individual to make the optimal adjustment to these opportunities (p. 22).

> Guidance and methods of teaching may at times have elements of procedure in common, but teaching cannot often be guidance and guidance does not comprehend methods of teaching. Classroom teaching becomes guidance only in instances such as instructing in courses in occupations or exploratory courses or where the teacher administers and interprets prognostic tests for guidance purposes (p. 17).

> The upshot of the whole matter is that guidance is not the whole of education. The term should not even be regarded, as some seem to regard it, as a beneficent synonym for education (p. 19). (Leonard V. Koos and Grayson N. Kefauver, *Guidance in Secondary Schools*, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1932.)

*1935*

Guidance is nothing more than an attempt to individualize education; that is,—to assist each pupil, as an individual, to develop himself to the highest possible degree in all respects. . . . The vague term "guidance" ought to be abandoned, and that in the interests of clarity, we should substitute the expression, individualized education. . . . The word guidance would then be used only in combination with the adjective "vocational" where it has always carried a clear meaning. Harry D. Kitson, "Individualized Education: A Heart-to-Heart Talk With a Superintendent About 'Guidance'," *Occupations* (February, 1935), *13*:411.

In the opinion of the present writer it is likewise useless to attempt to blow out of the window the good and useful term "guidance" although he recognizes full well that it usually should have an adjective modifier. . . . "Individualized education" does not itself tell what the education is to be about. . . . Shall we speak of "individualized education for recreational activities" or shall we use the term "recreational guidance," just as we do "vocational guidance"? . . . Under what logic should we try to prevent other workers in education from using the term "guidance"?

Wherever there are important life activities to be learned, and wherever assistance in these activities is needed and appropriate to give, there should be guidance. . . . A boy can be guided in any one of the following abilities and activities: (1) taste in color, (2) choice of necktie, (3) habits of eating, (4) care in crossing streets, (5) behavior toward girls, and (6) choice of leisure time activities. If we can give guidance in any such activities, we can, therefore, hardly confine the word "guidance" to the vocational areas of life. J. M. Brewer, "Guidance by Any Other Name," *Occupations* (March, 1935), *13*:547-549.

It is inconsistent to speak of curriculum *and* guidance when the curriculum is defined as the total of experiences which the pupil has under school control. Most of the materials and experiences which have been included in the so-called "informative phase" of guidance have in reality been placed there in an attempt to patch up a curriculum which is woefully deficient in scope. . . . All around developmental needs of the "whole child" simply cannot adequately be served when diagnosis, counseling, and ordering of learning experiences are performed as separate and uncoördinated services by different individuals. The reciprocal relationships of guidance and instruction will in truth be numerous, intimate, and fruitful for the pupil if and when a curriculum adequate in scope has been devised and the teacher has honestly been recognized as the key person in the education of children—and trained and treated as such. Harold C. Hand, "Relationship

of Curriculum and Guidance," *California Journal of Secondary Education* (March, 1937), 12:151.

Guidance is a service which is designed to assist individuals and groups of individuals, in school or out of school, in making of necessary adjustments to their environment and also in distributing themselves to suitable vocational, recreational, health, and social-civic opportunities. William M. Proctor, "The Task of Guidance in a Modern School," *California Journal of Secondary Education* (March, 1937), 12:142–147.

The function of guidance is to guide pupils on the basis of exploratory and revealing courses and on the information gathered from personnel studies, as wisely as possible into wholesome and worth while social relationships, maximum personality adjustment, and advanced study or vocations in which they are most likely to be successful and happy. Curtis H. Threlkeld, "The Guidance Function," *California Journal of Secondary Education* (March, 1937), 12:135–136.

### 1938

The purpose of guidance is to promote the best development possible for every child. (This can be accomplished by viewing every) "pupil in the school as a bundle of possibilities and (focusing) attention on what we think he may become. (Each teacher must) help each child to acquire the best health possible; the best method of facing difficulties, of solving life's problems, and of meeting its crises; the best functioning of his intelligence; and success in his relationships with people." We cannot be diverted from the purpose of guidance by machinery through which we think it can be accomplished. The task of guidance should be integrated with instruction. Ruth Strang, "Essentials of a Guidance Program," *School Executive* (March, 1938), 57:305, 324.

Individual guidance uses technics of individualized instruction in school subject matter; it includes health inspections, examinations, and follow-up for correction of health handicaps; it uses individual and group tests of academic capacity and achievement. . . . To make education fit each child we must get away from the idea that guidance is the exclusive domain of the specialist. We must start with a teacher who thinks of each of his pupils as an interesting young friend whom he *wants* to understand and help. Herbert R. Stolz, "The Meaning of Individual Guidance," *The Journal of the National Education Association* (September, 1938), 27:189.

### 1940

The very term "guidance" has lost its usefulness through excessive use. To some the word connotes a permeating philosophy of education; to others it means teacher-counseling; to others it may be restricted to vocational

guidance or even "placement." Such terms as "student-personnel work" could profitably be substituted for "guidance."

Guidance may be described as a point of view that affects the total, educational program, teaching, and administration, and as a series of specialized personnel services. C. Gilbert Wrenn, "The Evaluation of Student Personnel Work: A Critique of the Guidance Movement," *School and Society* (November 2, 1940), 52:409–417.

### 1945

Guidance as defined by those who approach the problem rationally implies first of all recognition and understanding of the individual and creation of conditions that will enable each individual to develop his fullest capacities and ultimately to achieve the maximum possible self-guidance and security both economically and socially. This concept of guidance epitomizes our democratic philosophy. It is as enduring as democracy itself, for basically it is democracy applied to the life of the school (p. 13). (Arthur E. Traxler, *Techniques of Guidance*, New York, Harper & Brothers, 1945.)

### 1946

The purpose of the guidance program is to help the student to make more favorable personal adjustments. . . . (When we think in terms of services) "guidance" is removed from the realms of philosophy into a language of concrete meaning—from an abstract concept to a program of specific services each of which can be focused on the individual student. The nature of the term is changed from a noun to an adjective . . . provides a new approach, a new point of view for the administrator and guidance worker. Fred M. Fowler, "Singleness of Purpose in the Guidance Program," *Clearing House* (May, 1946), 20:530–533.

### 1946

The principal objective of guidance is to help to bring about in the lives of those dealt with conditions which may be the bases of happy and effective living. . . . Unless the underlying purposive forces of human personality are guided toward self-direction, the individual may be seriously handicapped. Norman Fenton, "Guidance Program" (in P. F. Valentine, *Twentieth Century Education*, New York, Philosophical Library, 1946, 304–326).

### 1947

Because of interrelationship, many people have become confused, and have interpreted guidance in terms of widest extremes. Some people have maintained that education is guidance; while others have insisted that guidance is only the process of making better vocational choices. Neither

of these points of view is realistic when it is related to present-day education (p. 4). (Clifford E. Erickson, *A Basic Text for Guidance Workers,* New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1947.)

Guidance is more inclusive in scope in available resources, and in methods than "personnel service." It may include guidance through the example of parents, teachers, and others and guidance which comes incidentally from the reading of a book, attendance at a lecture, participation in some community service, and the like. Guidance may derive from group activities such as assembly or home-room programs, club conferences, and classroom discussions, and it may also derive from counseling interviews implemented with the best of tools and techniques. . . . Services of this type lie all around each one of us not only in our infancy but throughout our entire life. "Personal service" on the other hand, seems much more specific; it is never unconsciously offered and is always personal in character and application; the personal interview is its major technique (p. 71). (Anna Y. Reed, *Guidance and Personnel Services in Education,* New York, Cornell University Press, 1947.)

*1948*

Pupil personnel service is concerned with the individualization of education and covers the whole gamut of school experiences from kindergarten through the secondary school. . . . Do not dispense with classroom instruction to teach one individual at a time; such a system does see to it that each separate pupil receives intelligent attention as an individual. We may then discard the terms guidance and personnel service in favor of the basic term education. (Frank G. Davis, *Pupil Personnel Service,* Minneapolis, Minn., International Textbook Company, 1948.)

(1) Guidance consists in helping pupils to set up objectives that are for them dynamic, reasonable, and worthwhile, and in helping them, so far as possible, to attain these objectives. (2) The major fields in which guidance is necessary are health, vocation, avocation, education, and human relations. (3) The idea of guidance is inherent in all efforts to education. . . . (7) The major work of guidance must be done by classroom and home-room teachers (p. 15). (Philip W. L. Cox, John Carr Duff, Marie McNamara, *Basic Principles of Guidance,* New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1948.)

*1949*

Personnel work helps the individual pupil to understand and accept himself and to choose and engage in the school subjects, extra-class activities, recreation, and part-time work experiences that he needs for his physical, intellectual, social, and emotional development. This is "developmental guidance" . . . the aim of personnel work is to help every pupil, as a social

human being, to discover and develop his best potentialities. Ruth Strang, "Personnel Work in Elementary and Secondary Schools," *Educational Outlook* (March, 1949), 23:102–109.

(1) Effective education is guidance; (2) true education is always in a sense self-direction; and (3) realistic guidance is self-guidance. . . . Guidance as it has developed in all types of American institutions has been radically opposed to considering that students are predestined by external circumstances to any type of work. This philosophy of guidance then has been a great bulwark against totalitarianism in any form and even against the authoritarianism that says "Mother knows best." Leonard Carmichael, "A College President Looks at Vocational Guidance," *Occupations* (May, 1950), 28:500–503.

### 1951

✗Guidance is assistance made available by competent counselors to an individual of any age to help him direct his own life, develop his own point of view, make his own decisions, and carry his own burdens . . . fundamental (is the) thesis of guidance as help, or assistance (p. 6). (Lester D. Crow and Alice Crow, *An Introduction to Guidance*, New York, American Book Company, 1951.)

Guidance involves personal help given by someone. . . . The focus of guidance is the individual, not the problem; its purpose is to promote the growth of the individual in self-direction. This help may be given to individuals in a group or directly to the individual alone, but it is always designed to assist the individual (chap. 3). (Arthur J. Jones, *Principles of Guidance and Pupil Personnel Work*, New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 4th ed., 1951.)

### 1952

In one sense guidance is good pedagogy, and there is no particular advantage in laboring over the possible differences between the concepts of guidance and teaching. . . . Guidance embraces the significance of the emotions, of the personal needs, and of all those other forces which are making the child what he is. With no intention of decreasing the importance of subject matter in the curriculum, the author regards the acquisition of the facts and skills of subject matter as being dependent upon desirable personality adjustment. Thus the acquisition of facts and skills is a subordinate portion of the product of elementary education (p. xi). (Roy DeVerl Willey, *Guidance in Elementary Education*, New York, Harper & Brothers, 1952.)

An analysis of these definitions indicates that the concept of guidance includes several significant elements difficult to isolate from context

without distorting their meaning. Notwithstanding this difficulty, however, we shall note several of the most outstanding of these elements:

1. Guidance requires attention to the individual ("individualized education").
2. Guidance leads to self-development and self-direction ("self-guidance").
3. Guidance leads to the discovery of needs, assets, plans of action, adjustment to blocking of motives.
4. Guidance leads to success in a vocation.
5. Guidance assists in sustenance of personal enjoyment and accomplishment.

When these elements are placed together we can arrive at a satisfactory definition of guidance which the authors present as follows:

Through guidance the individual is assisted in making a wholesome, worth-while adjustment to his world. More specifically the individual must be given assistance in choosing dynamic, reasonable, and worthwhile objectives, in formulating plans of action to accomplish these objectives, in meeting crises and solving problems which appear to be blocking plans, and in sustaining personal enjoyment and in self-direction of his life so that goals may be efficiently achieved. There will be occasions during the guidance process where the individual will need help in discovery of needs, assets, opportunities, adjustment to other people, and adjustment to himself.

## POINTS OF ISSUE IN THE CONCEPT OF GUIDANCE

Throughout the recorded discussions of the philosophy and practice of guidance we note several persistent points of disagreement never entirely resolved which continue to add to the confusion described in the opening paragraphs of this chapter. Attention is given to some of the most prominent of these issues in the paragraphs which follow:

### Guidance vs. the Need for a Modifier

Guidance with a modifier first came into prominence in the work of Frank Parsons who stressed the need of vocational preparation and adjustment. Vocational guidance is interpreted by many people as "getting a job for the client," "fitting the occupation to the individual," or "keeping the individual happy at his work."

An increase in additional modifiers soon appeared in literature as educational guidance, social guidance, health guidance, moral guidance, character guidance, recreational guidance. Many feared, with some justi-

fication, that continued differentiation would disintegrate guidance completely. It is interesting to note that these modifiers are used to describe areas of guidance. A variation is also found in such expressions as moral counseling, civic counseling, vocational counseling, and ethical counseling.

For one prominent writer it appeared that "in the interests of clarity, we should substitute (for the word 'guidance') the expression, 'individualized education.' The word guidance (he said) should be used only in combination with the adjective 'vocational' where it has always carried a clear meaning" (24).

This point of view was refuted by another writer who wrote, "Shall we speak of 'individualized education' for 'recreational activities' or shall we use the term 'recreational guidance,' just as we do 'vocational guidance'? . . . Professor Kitson objected to the term 'health guidance' stating that this is only our old friend health instruction. . . . But is not this just the point? We have had instruction in physiology and we now realize that it does not necessarily lead to health; our health instruction did not result in guidance into health activities. . . . If we can give guidance in any such activities, we can, therefore, hardly confine the word 'guidance' to the vocational areas of life" (4).

What is the proper view to take of this issue today? The authors think of guidance as touching every aspect of an individual's personality including his attitudes, beliefs, ideals, values, and mental and physical health. The need for guidance involves the whole life of the individual, and the attempt to divide or classify the concept is not only artificial and disintegrating but also too complex to be practical.

## Individual vs. Group Guidance

The issue of individual versus group guidance provokes two questions: (1) Can the large variety of group activities which occur outside the regular classroom be called guidance? (2) Should guidance be geared to all children or only to problem children?

Attention was first focused upon the question of whether out-of-classroom activities should be called guidance in the discussions of guidance as "individualized instruction" and as "vocational guidance." Note the statement by Kitson, "the term (guidance) is applied to a weird assortment of unrelated activities; counseling of individuals on any matter; group instruction in any subject; home visiting; trips to factories; probation work; teaching pupils how to study; chaperoning

dances; club leadership; the giving of tests . . . whatever cannot be easily classified, is called guidance" (24).

The current interest in group therapy and group dynamics may give new impetus to group guidance. The authors see great promise in assistance that can be given an individual in group atmospheres. This assistance is considered in detail in Part IV of this textbook.

To many people who think of guidance as "individualized education" the phrase "group guidance" is a misnomer. The authors, however, can see no cause for this disagreement because the final test of guidance is whether assistance has brought about a personal change in "self." It matters little whether the assistance may have come because of being in a group or because of a person-to-person counseling situation. Individuals may learn from both a counselor and from the group. The pressure of the group can be a factor in moulding the personality of the individual.

An important part of the guidance program is found in the total curriculum of the school which includes school group activities whether these be in the form of assembly programs, organized groups in which occupational information is learned, homeroom activities, or field trips. Values in terms of behavior, broader social knowledge, attitudes, and ideals are all part of the "whole life" of a child and it makes little difference whether acquisition of these entities occurs as a result of what may be called instruction, individual guidance, or group guidance.

Guidance involves all the forces found in the environment. Guidance workers should know how to foster group formations and processes that do not entirely include a one-to-one relationship as in a counseling situation. Because there should be promoted any development which occurs in interrelationships in social experiences that may be therapeutic to individuals in the group, guidance should be designed to assist all children. In every school each child should be known well and sympathetically by at least one person. Guidance should be preventive as well as remedial; thus the well-adjusted child must receive a proper share of attention.

## The Teacher vs. the Specialist

One current school of thought would place the task of guiding the student entirely in the hands of the classroom teacher. Under such a system there would be no need of a guidance staff apart from the instructional force. Opposed to this philosophy is that group of people

who think that all guidance must be organized under the direction and assistance of specialists who render an individualized, consultative type of service. The specially trained counselor should render service one step removed from the classroom teacher in the hierarchy of educational specialization. He deals with complex problems and behavioral disturbances much too involved for the classroom teacher to handle. What is the correct point of view regarding this issue?

In the first place, guidance should be continuous from kindergarten through secondary school and cannot be successful without the coöperation of parent, teacher, counselor, child-serving agencies of the community, and all who come in contact with the child. Guidance cannot be solely the work of a few specialists; it is rendered by the entire school staff and requires some people with special knowledge and skills: coöperation from all is fundamental. Neither the teacher nor the specialist can hope to meet the task alone. It is difficult to list or classify all the types of specialists and their duties; we may mention the school nurse, pediatrician, dentist, counselor, psychologist, social worker, and psychiatrist. The school may have need of all of these specialists, but the degree to which they can be used will be determined by the size and wealth of the school unit. In the elementary school the teacher is at the heart of the guidance program. In the small secondary school guidance responsibilities may be left to the principal or homeroom teacher. In the larger high schools and colleges the main functionary of the guidance program may be the special school counselor.

## Guidance vs. Education

This issue has been prominent in the literature of guidance for over three decades. One group of writers would say, "Instruction is not guidance and must be carefully distinguished from it. Guidance sometimes makes use of instruction, but it is not itself instruction."

On the other hand a pioneer and able guidance expert, Brewer, wrote:

The separation today of instruction from any application to the improvement of present living activities on the part of the young is, in the opinion of the writer, the greatest blight on our educational system. We often hear from college presidents that "knowledge should be studied for its own sake." Yet, if a thing exists for its own sake, it becomes irrelevant to compare its value to that of anything external to itself. Thus, one bit of knowledge becomes as good as any other. Knowledge becomes an idol, not a tool. . . . If we set up guidance and instruction as two coördinate functions of

education, such equality would necessarily separate them; here a plan of guidance, there a body of knowledge in which the individual is to be instructed . . . if so, then the *purpose, method, criteria, and result of instruction reside in guidance.* Thus they are not coördinate . . . the former serves and is controlled by the latter. Admit so much, and one need worry little whether he calls the whole guidance or something else; the obvious convenience of the single designation, especially when most of the world believes the opposite, is evident (5).

Arguing from the point of view that the curriculum is the total of the experiences which the pupil has under school control, Hand (16) wrote (in 1937) that "curriculum *and* guidance" thinking has led scores of administrators to conceive and organize guidance as a segmented, separate, compartmentalized, or supplementary service *to be discharged in toto* by a very small number of more or less specially trained members of the staff. It is erroneous to assume that the tasks of guidance and instruction are in the nature of discrete functions which can safely be delegated to separate groups of faculty persons.

What is the correct point of view to take in this argument? Not by any means has the issue been settled in contemporary educational philosophy; nevertheless attention appears to be not so much on aims and objectives as on methods of accomplishment. Most thoughtful writers will agree that guidance has always been present in education and that the *effectiveness of the guidance process is merely a matter of emphasis.* Guidance is a desirable emphasis that can be maintained in any sound educational philosophy. The real question is how can the aims of guidance be best achieved? Will it be in terms of point of view, of organization, or of services? Eventually we shall attempt to answer this question, but first let us consider the confusion which has resulted in guidance terminology.

## THE PROBLEM OF TERMINOLOGY IN GUIDANCE

One of the most significant forces which has kept the guidance field from moving forward in public education is the confusion which has developed through the promiscuous use of terminology. In an attempt to remove the ambiguity of such phraseology as vocational guidance, health guidance, educational guidance and so on, certain other terms were adopted. Some of these terms with which guidance literature is saturated are: guidance services, personnel work, pupil-personnel services, student-personnel services, and counseling services. Instead of clari-

fying the issues, however, they have added to the confusion. These terms usually mean one thing to one person and something else to another. Space does not permit us to present the derivation of each of these terms but in order that the reader may obtain a general impression of the use of terminology several illustrations are presented as follows:

*Guidance is a service* which is designed to assist individuals and groups of individuals . . . in the making of necessary adjustments to their environment and also in distributing themselves to suitable vocational, recreational, health, and social-civic-opportunities . . . *guidance service* is to help make crooked paths straight . . . (*it*) seeks *not only* to help individuals discover goals and achieve these goals . . . but it also seeks to help individuals as they attempt to distribute themselves . . . *organized guidance service* exists in the contribution it may be able to make to the better coördination of all educative experiences or processes. William M. Proctor, "The Task of Guidance in a Modern School," *California Journal of Secondary Education* (March, 1937), 12:142–147.

*Pupil-personnel* must be interpreted as a broad social question rather than as internal administrative procedure. . . . *Guidance, individual development, personnel work,* are not functions to be isolated, segregated, or professionalized. *Personnel philosophy* must become an everyday spirit in all human relationships. Guidance is an emphasis, not a job. See opinions in Edwin A. Lee, "Critical Issues in Guidance and Personnel," *Occupations* (May, 1937), 15:689–693.

Others have felt impelled to define guidance as something apart from the main educational task of higher education. Note J. Hillis Miller's statement: "*Personnel work is no longer a side issue; it is the fundamental issue; it is no longer an adjunct to education, it is education*" . . . *personnel work* (is a term used) to cover not only *personnel services;* but also to include a point of view or an educational philosophy as well as to cover *personnel administration. The personnel point of view must prevail if* curricula are to be individualized. *Personnel service* (is designed) to help the student adjust as smoothly as possible to the new situation which the college presents . . . (*personnel work* is not synonymous with *personnel service.* "Personnel work" is a broader term than "personnel service"; the former includes all the *special services* which go to make up the *personnel program* . . . ("personnel work" is not a broad enough term to be included in a *personnel program*) . . . (it) does not sufficiently imply the aspects of the personnel program that are best designated by the term *student personnel administration* . . . (personnel program includes point of view, personnel services, personnel work). Esther Lloyd-Jones, "What

is This Thing Called Personnel Work?" *Teachers College Record* (March, 1937), 38:477–484.

As *personnel workers* we have become inept in communicating with each other. Only with trust can there be any real communication, and that until trust is achieved the techniques and gadgetry of communication are so much wasted effort. . . . We have lost many advocates for the *personnel philosophy* we promote because we haven't thought of the discussion with the college was worth the effort, or because we have been so preoccupied with trying to understand the attitude and temper of a superior that we have not listened to the need for self-expression in others. "Personnel Work in 1951, Philosophies, Problems, Programs," *Journal of the Association of Deans of Women* (June, 1951), 14:162–172.

Guidance is used to indicate a type of *personalized service* in the elementary and secondary school; *personnel work* is used for *services* in business, industry, and many forms of government work. It is also used in higher education as "student personnel work." In the past few years the term *pupil personnel work* has been used with increasing frequency for similar services in the secondary and in the elementary school. . . . (In industry) *personnel work* deals primarily with the worker; it takes no part in the actual process of production. It has a direct relationship and responsibility to the general administration and to the heads of departments . . . *personnel work* (in education) is not easily defined. We have clear statements of the purpose of *personnel work* and of the *personnel point of view,* fairly definite descriptions of *personnel services,* and outlines of *personnel programs,* but few if any clear statements of what *student personnel work* is. (Arthur J. Jones, *Principles of Guidance and Pupil Personnel Work,* New York, McGraw-Hill Book Publishing Company, 4th ed., 1951.)

*Pupil personnel services* are of such recent development in school systems that relatively few have as yet established complete programs, and there is practically no similarity among those which have been established . . . titles under which *personnel services* are identified in reports differ widely and are confusing in terminology . . . the services are reported as auxiliary agencies, or coördinated activities, almost as often as they are reported as bureaus of child welfare, *personnel services,* or *guidance services* (p. 2). (Galen Jones, in *Pupil Personnel Services in Elementary and Secondary Schools,* Federal Security Agency, Washington, D. C., Circular No. 325. U. S. Government Printing Office, Superintendent of Documents, 1951.)

In listing current trends the reference to *guidance services* is made without any attempt at definition. Some of these trends indicated are: (1) an organized program of counseling as the heart of a *guidance program,* (a)

non-directive procedure is gaining favor. (2) The counseling is concerned with the individual interview or the talking out process. (3) Precision testing (individual) is taking the place of saturation testing (general testing program), (a) increase of organized testing programs. (4) Increased study of cumulative record forms and usages. (5) Redefinition of group guidance. (6) More information of the requirements and expectations of colleges. (7) Greater concern with preventive measures. (8) Greater attention to follow-up and evaluation of *guidance services.* See discussions by C. A. Hamrin and W. J. Kindig in *National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin* (April, 1952), *36:59, 65.*

We are undergoing rapid changes in thinking in the field of personnel services. There is evidence of change from a narrow concept of guidance, primarily as vocational guidance to one of *personnel services* in a much broader sense. . . . (We are finding a) greater use of the term "student personnel." R. U. Hofmann, "Developing Concept of Pupil Personnel Services," *Occupations* (May, 1952), *30:657–659.*

## A PROPOSED SOLUTION

The word "guidance" is still a basic term and the authors prefer it to all the others. It is a word sufficiently broad to represent many aspects of several detailed operations and can become meaningful and useful only as these operations are organized and brought to the focus of attention. The mere listing of accumulated operations appearing in the school which all come under the heading of guidance and classifying them under specific nomenclature is of doubtful value. While classification, organization, and interpretation of relationships is necessary, this step must be preceded by a relatively long period of experiences by teachers and administrators in specific situations in which guidance operates.

Generalization, classification, and organization emerge only as a process of synthesis of knowledge and attitude acquired by a thorough study of human development. With many teachers and specialists who have had wide experience with guidance a generalization called the "guidance concept" is frequently formed without a concomitant ability to verbalize it into a definition. The authors prefer to call this synthesis the development of a point of view.

How can we be certain that the school staff has this point of view? The answer is found in consistent appropriate behavior in specific situations requiring guidance. Not only are specific situations necessary in which the elements of guidance may be perceived but there must also

be a vigorous effort to discover these situations. It follows, therefore, that the guidance concept becomes more definite and meaningful as each staff member can refer to specific situations from which the generalized concept was formed.

It is usually a costly and disappointing experiment to impose an organized guidance program on a school system until a satisfactory guidance point-of-view has been well established through in-service training. It is particularly disastrous, for example, to impose a system of organized student-personnel services found in institutions of higher learning onto the secondary school. Likewise it is disastrous to impose upon the elementary school an organized program of pupil-personnel services which has been developed for secondary education.[2]

Briefly stated the solution is this: (1) a *philosophy of guidance* and the development of a point of view precede an organization into basic services; (2) organization into basic service divisions is essential if the guidance program is to be effectively coördinated, clarified, and efficiently activated.

To the degree that the school staff will accept the need for some kind of coördinated program, the term "services" becomes acceptable and meaningful. The service concept succeeds rather than precedes the establishment of "a point of view" or guidance philosophy. The authors prefer the use of the phrase "guidance services" to describe a coördinated program of guidance which utilizes the personal knowledge, convictions, planning, and initiative of each pupil in gaining the optimum growth and development of his personality.

The final pattern into which guidance services is formulated is dependent upon the background, experience, and interest of the school personnel involved.

Froehlich (14), for example, lists services in five categories: (1) services to pupils in groups, (2) services to pupils as individuals, (3) services to the instructional staff, (4) services to the administration, and (5) services to research.

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[2] Note here the authors' use of the phrase "student-personnel services" in relation to higher education. The term is used frequently in this context and is probably satisfactory under the present forms of organized guidance programs found in colleges and universities. Likewise, the phrase "pupil-personnel services" is used as it is frequently applied to high schools. Currently "pupil-personnel services" and "guidance services" could be used without any difference in meaning. "Guidance services" is apparently more suitable, however, because it retains the strength of the "guidance movement" since its official recognition in the first decade of the century.

Hatch and Dressel (*17*) classify guidance services into: (1) student-inventory service, (2) information service, (3) counseling service, (4) placement service, and (5) follow-up service.

We should never lose perspective in talking about guidance. Although the phrase "guidance services" appears to be a convenient method for organizing thought and effort in terms of specific operations and procedures we cannot divide the guidance program into incomplete, distorted, and isolated segments. The value of any service lies not in its classified form but rather in its influence upon the curriculum and the child as it changes his total personality.

## PRINCIPLES OF GUIDANCE

1. *Guidance is a function of education and directly contributes to the realization of the school's total objectives.* An exact boundary line can never be drawn between what is generally termed education and what is generally termed guidance. Occasionally what is done for the child may claim a minute portion of guidance yet a correspondingly large part may be claimed by what is traditionally called instruction. On the other hand, what is done for the child may claim a large portion of guidance and relatively small portion of instruction. It becomes a matter of emphasis. Guidance is inherent in every part of the school that is concerned with assisting the pupil to make adjustments, and interpretations, and to solve personal problems.

2. *Guidance is primarily dedicated to assisting the individual; by so doing, it also assists society.* Frequently individual assistance is best given by assisting a group; thus adjustment occurs not only for the individual but for the group itself. The group should be considered as something more than the sum of the individuals which comprise it. It is an entity in itself which can be influenced by guidance.

Guidance implements the essential concern of democracy for the dignity and worth of the individual. The individual is not only a self-reliant and self-possessed person but he is also a socially sensitive and coöperative person. Guidance should assist the individual to adjust to social realities in terms of moral and spiritual values and to all other attributes that will lead to a useful and worthy citizen of a democracy. Such a philosophy requires an emphasis on processes of behavior and human interaction rather than on records, administrative details, testing, and so on. Because he works with groups the teacher must have an understanding of the behavior of human beings including human-interaction. He must be ever conscious of social influences, cultural backgrounds and psychological and hygienic climates as these pertain to the entire group situation and the individual within this group.

3. Guidance is a lifelong process. Parents, siblings, kinfolk, family friends, church workers, teachers, and trained experts give assistance, some of which may be called guidance. Professional knowledge and competence is required to assist individuals with many personal problems.

4. Guidance emphasizes self-understanding, self-determination, and self-adjustment. Those who guide have respect for individual worth and a knowledge of the importance of individual development. They assist the pupil to learn facts about himself which he could not otherwise obtain. Assistance is given in accepting responsibility for improving himself and society.

5. Guidance should emphasize prevention of maladjustment rather than be limited to correction or remediation. Assistance should be extended to all normal individuals as well as the obviously maladjusted. In fact the existence of an "average," "typical," or "normal" person from the guidance point of view is a nonentity. Every individual has his own peculiar abilities, interests, needs, assets, and liabilities.

6. The guidance worker is efficient in the collection and interpretation of data. Data systematically collected, should be employed wherever applicable but always within a framework which regards the individual as a unique human being.

7. Guidance is a unified process which considers the individual as a whole; thus we should think of life guidance rather than educational guidance, vocational guidance, health guidance, and so on. Guidance assists the individual to integrate all of his activities in terms of his potentialities and environmental opportunities.

10. It is futile to classify guidance into compartmentalized services without any attempt at integration. The integration of all services must be evaluated in terms of the whole child.

11. There should be a continuous study of the effect of guidance on pupil behavior. In other words, it is essential that periodic appraisals should be made of the existing guidance program.

## SUMMARY

As is true in the genesis of all disciplines, the field of guidance in education has been characterized by confusion in objectives, in organizational plans, and in terminology. Although guidance has always been present in rearing and educating the young, it did not receive sufficient recognition as a potentially desirable organized discipline until the first decade of the twentieth century. The guidance movement has progressed in company with other movements. Because the "vocational guidance movement" has generally been the one usually meant when the guidance movement is mentioned, because it has had many sponsors in philanthopy and industry, and because of the voluminous literature devoted to it, this phase of guidance was considered first in this chapter. Under the leadership of Frank Parsons of Boston the vocational guidance movement received national recognition. Parsons of Boston, Eli W. Weaver of Brooklyn, Jesse B. Davis of Grand Rapids, Anna Y. Reed in Seattle, and a score of other pioneers in such cities as Cincinnati, Minneapolis, Omaha, and New Orleans, all helped to bring pressure of organized social work upon school boards to accept guidance as a major social responsibility. The Mental Hygiene Movement initiated by Clifford W. Beers has devoted itself to the amelioration of social conditions to the welfare of children. The child guidance movement has served parents and children through child guidance clinics. Currently those youngsters selected for treatment are within the wide range of what is called normal intelligence whose difficulties are traceable to emotional imbalance.

During the late 1920's and early 1930's guidance had been well received into the public schools and was dominated by such school administrators and professors of education as John Brewer, Harry Kitson, George Myers, William Proctor, Grayson Kefauver, and Leonard Koos. Their definitions of guidance asserted that guidance was either too vocational or not educational enough, or that education was guidance and guidance was education. Binet, Cattell, Goddard, Terman, and

Thorndike, psychologists who initiated the psychological testing movement, were influential in implementing the guidance field. The redistribution of pupils by use of test scores introduced large-scale school surveys which some writers describe as the beginnings of educational guidance. In the middle and late 1930's guidance was dominated by attention to economic problems of unemployment, placement, technological change, and occupational trends and mobility—along with increased assistance to the employee, which supposedly makes him more effective in his work. This is described by some writers as the personnel movement. The antecedents of contemporary guidance concepts have their roots in four spheres of influence: sociology, economics, psychology, and education. Guidance needs all of these disciplines as contributors; there is real danger in any one of them becoming controllers. *Able educators* who become specialists in guidance must be thoroughly trained in a philosophy of education, an understanding of growth and development, psychology, vocational information, principles of curriculum construction, and techniques in personal counseling. More attention shall be given to these qualifications in the succeeding chapter.

In this chapter typical definitions of guidance were presented from literature published in 1932 to 1953. An examination of these definitions shows many differences in opinions but a synthesis of elements helps us to arrive at the following statement of what guidance is: "By means of guidance the individual is assisted in making a wholesome, worth-while adjustment to his world. More specifically, the individual must be given help in choosing dynamic, reasonable, and worth-while objectives, in formulating plans of action to accomplish these objectives, in meeting crises and solving problems which appear to be blocking plans, and in sustaining personal enjoyment in self-direction of his life so that goals may be efficiently solved."

The authors prefer to use the phrase "guidance services" as a convenient description of an organized guidance program. Guidance, however, cannot be regarded as a composite of isolated services or activities. Guidance touches every aspect of an individual's personality and involves his whole life. Guidance may occur in a one-to-one relationship with a counselor, or the assistance may come as a result of group dynamics. The final test of guidance, whether it be in terms of the individual or a group, is the desirable change in "self."

A successfully organized guidance program can evolve only after a satisfactory guidance point-of-view has been well developed in the

entire school staff. The guidance concept becomes more definite and meaningful as each staff member can refer to specific situations from which the *generalized concept* was formed. In other words, the term "services" becomes acceptable and meaningful only after a basic guidance point-of-view has been established. Only then will the school staff accept the need for some kind of coördinated program.

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CHAPTER 2

*The Personnel of the Guidance*

*Program*

THE NEED FOR CLARIFICATION OF FUNCTIONS AND DUTIES

THE success or failure of any guidance program is dependent upon the initiative, foresight, knowledge, tact, and skill of all the personnel associated with it. Numerous and variable factors determine the organization and duties of personnel, but regardless of organizational pattern, the objective, "maximum development of the pupil" should always be given primary consideration. To have an effective guidance program all the people within the school system should be a part of the program—working in unison, as a coöperative team. However, much confusion frequently results because the teacher, counselor, or administrator does not comprehend his or her appropriate role in the program. On the one hand one or more of these people may usurp more authority than they should, or on the other hand do nothing because they do not know their function.

For school staff members to perceive their respective relationships to one another and to perceive the importance of their role to the total guidance program, there needs to be a clarification of status and tasks. This chapter will be devoted to a discussion of some of the functions and duties of each of the following types of personnel in the guidance program: (1) administrator, (2) teacher, (3) counselor, (4) school psychologist, (5) school librarian, and (6) health specialist. It is recognized that some duties may be duplicated and thus be performed by

more than one person; nevertheless, there must be some clarification of responsibilities in order to have an effective program.

## THE ROLE OF THE ADMINISTRATOR

Much of the success of the guidance program will depend primarily upon the administrator. The person assuming this role will influence the entire program through possessing or lacking an appropriate philosophy and spirit of coöperation. The responsibilities of the administrator may be vested in several people, i.e. superintendent, principal, vice-principal, or curriculum supervisor. Regardless of his specific title, this individual should assume some common functions and responsibilities in his relationship to the guidance program. It is agreed and assumed that there will be some variations in functions from school to school depending upon the size and form of school organization.

The administrator should recognize the need and importance of a comprehensive guidance program and give it his personal support (34). In order to do this he must have a philosophy of education compatible with the theory that the maximum development of each child according to his interests, needs, and abilities is desirable. Only when such a philosophy permeates throughout the school system can a guidance program be effective. Assuming that the administrator believes in the value of a guidance program, there then arises the problem of methods by which he can make his philosophy functional.

The first responsibility of the administrator should be to convince the school board and the community of the need for guidance. Only by so doing can an adequate budget be obtained for activating the guidance program. Without such a budget the program is doomed to failure before it gets started.

A second responsibility of the administrator should be to formulate a guidance committee or council in his school which oversees the operation of the entire guidance program. It should be composed of various representative members of the community, of the teaching faculty, of guidance experts, and administrators. In some cases the principal may be the chairman of such a committee. Its main purpose would be the formulation of all guidance policies and of a program adapted to meet the needs of all pupils (13:29). Plans to meet these needs should include both individual and group activities.

It bears repeating that the success of a guidance program depends in large measure on the qualifications of the personnel involved. Individ-

uals with suitable personality traits and a proper background of training should be selected by the administrator to fill the various positions in the program. Recognition and salary should be made commensurate with the responsibilities and duties of the position. The personnel staff should not only include a full time counselor but also class advisers, sponsors of various group activities, and so on.

On many occasions it will be difficult for the administrator to find qualified personnel for the guidance program, thus it should be his responsibility to initiate an in-service training program for all the people who have an interest or responsibility in guidance. Such a training program should also be made available to all members of the special guidance staff so that they may be made cognizant of the value, functions, and problems of guidance. This might be done through short institutes, work shops, faculty meetings, or case conferences. Promising teachers should be assisted and encouraged to attend summer school or enroll in evening courses, where they may take work that will increase the skills needed in pupil personnel work.

After the best possible personnel have been selected it is then the duty of the principal to distribute the guidance functions so that each member of the guidance staff will have definite tasks to perform. Duplication of duties and responsibilities should be avoided wherever possible. It should be understood that it is not the purpose of the guidance services to provide supply clerks, relief teachers, attendance officers, supervisors of extra-curricular activities, disciplinarians, overseers of study halls, or homeroom teachers (8:151).

When the personnel have been selected and a counselor designated, the administrator must provide adequate time and facilities so that the program may be carried out. The principal should provide the supplies and equipment necessary for such a program and see that there is a private room for the counselor to interview students without interruption or interferences. The administrator should provide a schedule whereby each student will receive the opportunity for counseling. This may necessitate some "release time" for students from class, and a careful distribution of the counselor's responsibilities so as to insure the availability of the counselor. The administrator should recognize that the time allotted to counselors is not "free period" time to be used to substitute for teachers who are absent from classes because of illness, for class play coaching, for graduation processional assignment, or other duties (49).

The administrator is responsible for the establishment and mainte-nance of an adequate cumulative record on each pupil. Without such information sound guidance cannot be performed. Other parts of this book will be devoted to types of information needed on such records.

In order to meet the needs of the student, a primary responsibility of the administrator is to evaluate and revise the curriculum. By fulfilling this responsibility the principal will also be evaluating the effectiveness of the guidance program in gaining and using information for aiding the student in his adjustment. The administrator should also recognize that any curriculum should be broad enough to include the traditional extra-curricular activities as well as formal class work.[1]

In addition to factors already cited, the success of a guidance program is dependent upon the administrator's ability as a public relations agent. He should not only attempt to make his staff and school board members recognize the value of guidance, but also consistently inform the com-munity and parents of guidance activities. The entire school faculty should be *cognizant of their similar responsibility in the community*, but the administrator should provide the leadership in such an endeavor.

In summary, the following duties seem to be the responsibilities of the administrator whether he be superintendent, principal, vice-princi-pal, or supervisor. He should:

1. Recognize the need for guidance and give it his support.
2. Educate the board of education to the value of guidance.
3. Make adequate provisions in the budget for carrying on the guidance program.
4. Be responsible for the appointment of a guidance committee which will formulate the policies of such a program.
5. Select the best qualified personnel available to carry on the guidance program.
6. Distribute the responsibilities among the personnel doing the guidance work.
7. Initiate a program of in-service training for all staff members.
8. Provide adequate time and facilities in order to carry out the guidance program.
9. Initiate and maintain an adequate cumulative record for each child.
10. Attempt to adopt a curriculum to fit the needs of the students.
11. Act as a public relations agent to staff, school board, and community.

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[1] The authors regard any experience worth including in the school program as part of the curriculum not as "extra."

## THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER

Every teacher, whether he is aware of the fact or not, has an important role to play in the guidance program. Teachers have for years been contributing to guidance, but they must become more conscious of their specific functions and the relationship of their duties to the total guidance program.

Instruction and guidance cannot be separated nor can experience and development. Developmental experiences provide for the continuous adjustment of most normal youth. This does not imply that guidance is not involved, but rather it implies that the developmental experiences be carefully selected and directed by the skillful teacher. This is the best form of guidance and also the most desirable (35). From a functional viewpoint, the classroom teacher is and always has been the most important person in the guidance program. This does not imply that the teacher can function of and by himself, rather it emphasizes that he is in continuous contact with the child, and in a favorable position for affecting his behavior. It seems to the writers that the classroom teacher's responsibilities in the guidance program fall into the following areas: (1) understanding the child, (2) developing the pupil's personality, (3) providing occupational information, and (4) counseling.

### Understanding the Child

If a teacher has a philosophy of guidance, it is fundamental that he know the children he is teaching. The Commission on Teacher Education (10) lists the following characteristics of teachers who understand children:

1. We believe, in the first place, that teachers who understand children think of their behavior as being caused.
2. A second characteristic of teachers who understand children is that they are able to accept all children emotionally, that they reject no child as hopeless or unworthy.
3. Our third point is that teachers who understand children invariably recognize that each one is unique.
4. We believe, in the fourth place, that the various sciences concerned with human growth and behavior have demonstrated that young people, during the several phases of their development, face a series of common "developmental tasks." . . . Understanding teachers know what these tasks are; their sequence and timing in relation to physical, social, and

mental maturity; what complications often arise as persons with different characteristics and background work at them; and what conditions, relationships, and experiences are most helpful to children in mastering each of them.

5. A fifth characteristic of understanding teachers is that they know the more important scientific facts that describe and explain the forces that regulate human growth, development, motivation, learning, and behavior.

6. Finally, we believe that the understanding teacher habitually uses scientific methods in making judgments about any particular boy or girl.

If the teacher is going to be an important part of the guidance program, he must have the characteristics just described. Such characteristics imply that he will need a great deal of information about each of his pupils. He can gain part of this information from the child's cumulative records and in return he has the responsibility of adding to and keeping pupils' individual inventories up to date. Although another section of this book deals with the specific types of information needed about the pupil, in general, here is what teachers need to know about their students: scholastic ability, past achievement, aptitudes and disabilities, interests, personality adjustments, health, and family background (19).

In addition to gathering such information for his own use, every teacher should make the same information available to the counselor so that he may be more effective when dealing with the student in an individual counseling relationship. It is also the responsibility of the teacher to use such information when counseling with parents. In this respect, the teacher performs a vital public relations function between the school and the community.

## Developing the Pupil's Personality

While they should be primarily concerned with the problems and needs of their students, many teachers are neither aware of their responsibility for student adjustment nor of the factors involved therein. In the following list, Myers (29) indicates some of the functions that teachers should perform in the development of a healthy personality.

1. Create a good emotional classroom climate so that young people will feel free to express themselves and put forth their best efforts as individuals and in groups.

2. Realize the importance of their own personalities in determining the emotional tone of their classroom.

3. Recognize that all guidance does not have to be formal.
4. Understand the importance of knowing their pupils—their backgrounds, personalities, aspirations.
5. Realize that all behavior is caused, and that deviations from acceptable behavior are due to factors that stem from home, school, and community.
6. Avoid putting too great a premium on conforming behavior. Recognize that the shy student who "causes no trouble" may be experiencing serious emotional conflicts.
7. Learn to distinguish between "normal" misbehavior cases and those that are chronic.
8. Recognize that disorderly behavior on the part of students is not necessarily a reflection on their teaching.
9. Notify the parents of pupils who have achieved success or demonstrated good citizenship.
10. Use the curriculum—content, materials, and relationships—to meet the needs of the young people.
11. Emphasize the importance of good reading habits in all subjects.
12. Acquire a knowledge of the group process so that the interaction of students can be observed and steps taken to improve their group experiences.
13. Endeavor to become well acquainted with their local communities and afford pupils opportunities to learn about their communities.
14. Realize the importance of growing professionally so that maximum service can be rendered to young people.
15. Never lose sight of the fact that it is important to lead well rounded lives.
16. Take comfort in the thought that teachers can never tell where their influence stops.
17. Show more concern for the intangibles of education—for the development of spiritual values.
18. Transmit to young people an enduring faith in American democracy.

Thus, the teacher is in a strategic position to detect emerging maladjustments of pupils. Alert for symptoms of maladjustment, he should refer students with such deviant behavior to the proper place for treatment. Far more significant than detection is the prevention of such maladjustments. Teachers should realize that prevention primarily depends upon the human relationships that exist in the classroom, home, and community. A child may find much security in the social relationships of a classroom. Security is threatened, however, if the pupil encounters isolation and rejection by his classmates, criticism by the teacher

. and his classmates, failure through the imposition of tasks beyond his capacity, inappropriate reporting methods, or lack of sensitivity to social relationships in classification for instruction (33). Thus, the prime responsibility of a teacher is to conduct her class in a democratic fashion and provide material for each pupil according to his interests, needs, and abilities.

## Providing Occupational Information

Every teacher can make a valuable contribution to the guidance program by providing occupational information to every student in the class. While methods by which this function is performed will vary, each teacher has a contribution, especially in providing information about his own subject matter field. Zeran (48) lists these duties and responsibilities of the teachers in this area:

1. Coöperate with school counselors in the dissemination of occupational information.
2. Contribute occupational information from his own specialized field.
3. Stress, with careful regard to realistic conditions, the occupational value of subjects taught.
4. Provide developmental group activities in citizenship, leadership, and personality.
5. Explain the importance of traits of character and personality needed to become a successful worker.
6. Help the student to evaluate important outcomes of successful work in addition to salary.
7. Encourage the pupil to work to capacity.
8. Assist in preparing assembly programs dealing with vocational guidance.
9. Interpret the vocational implications of school subjects and help students develop proper work attitudes.
10. Assist the counselor in arranging and carrying out occupational trips.
11. Assist in the development of poster material, plays, and similar activities related to guidance.
12. Encourage the use of visual and auditory aids.

With this type of assistance the student will have a sound and realistic approach to the choice of a life vocation. The teacher should also help the student to realize that one may have to start in an "entry" occupation from which he might progress to his ultimate goal. Many misconceptions and disappointments might be eliminated if students understand that

"entry" occupations precede the ultimate vocational goal. If teachers adequately perform this guidance responsibility, the tremendous amount of dissatisfaction and turnover in jobs due to lack of interest and personality difficulties can be materially reduced.

## Counseling

The question of who should do the counseling has elicited tremendous discussion and argument. Three different points of view are generally considered: (1) the classroom teacher should do the counseling, for he is the one who is in direct contact with the student and is in the best position to know his needs; (2) the counseling should be left to the specialist, usually the counselor, because it requires specific training and skill that most classroom teachers do not possess; and (3) a compromise between these two indicates that every member of the school faculty might do some counseling, but every member will not do it to the same amount or the same kind. In other words, proponents of the last point of view would say that there are different levels of counseling, and that every personnel worker should realize his limitations and not extend his area of competency.

Much of the above controversy has arisen because of lack of agreement on a definition of counseling. Too often teachers regard counseling as the providing of information, or the granting of advice, or as the correcting of the child's social manners. Information alone, of course, will not help a person to adjust. While many people want and need information they also need help in using and interpreting that information effectively, and thus counseling is needed. Arbuckle's definition of counseling as a process by which the counselee can come to understand himself so that he can solve his own problems seems to be a pertinent description for the purpose of this discussion (2).

He indicates that it is questionable whether it is either practical or desirable for counseling to be performed only by specialists. Conversely, the assumption that counseling should be performed by all teachers is impractical (though ideal) because most of them are trained only in subject matter. Nevertheless counseling is performed by certain teachers who have an expressed interest in counseling and who have had some professional training in the field. It seems feasible to ascertain the responsibilities of these *certain* teachers for counseling.

Dissension often arises between teachers and counselors because of lack of clarification of duties. Frazier (18) says that there is no reason

why the teacher and the counselor should not be friends; certainly the school cannot afford to have them enemies in the promotion of student welfare. He points out three ways that teacher and counselor can join forces: (1) the teachers must understand the nature of the counseling process, the relationship between counselor and student, and the relationship in which a counselor stands to the teacher, and how they are interwoven; (2) they must not only understand the counseling process but they must also work together closely at all times, and (3) the counselor should understand and help the teacher make use of the opportunities for therapy that lie in the classroom. With such a procedure, it is not a matter of "either-or" but rather a coördination between two types of personnel working together in their respective areas of qualification and training.

The counseling duties to be performed by *all* classroom teachers have been discussed under the headings of understanding the child, developing a healthy personality, and the dissemination of occupational information. However, certain teachers will have additional counseling responsibilities.

Many titles have been given to the classroom teacher who performs counseling services differing from those of other teachers. Such titles are the homeroom teacher, faculty adviser, teacher-counselor, orientation teacher, or vocational teacher. Our interest lies not in the title but rather in the role he performs in the guidance program and especially as regards the counseling function. For the sake of clarity such a teacher will be referred to as teacher-counselor in this discussion.

The first function of the teacher-counselor should be the preparation and maintenance of the personnel records of all his students. In this respect he may work closely with the counselor, administrator, and all teachers in disseminating such information, in determining the type of records to be kept, and in deciding the kinds of information to be recorded.

Another function of the teacher-counselor is to be constantly aware of emotional problems among the students for whom he is responsible. He should screen such pupils and refer to the counselor those cases which are beyond the scope of his experience and training. In turn, he plays a vital role in the adjustment of pupils because adjustment must be made in terms of daily relationships and he can observe and help such individuals to adjust (35). The teacher-counselor should recognize that proper use of the curriculum will aid many students to adjust. Place-

ment of students in a suitable school program in accordance with their abilities will eliminate many adjustment problems.

A major function of the teacher-counselor is to study the needs, interests, abilities, achievements, and personality of each student through observation, psychological tests, and other methods (*13:36*). In this respect the teacher should help the student make appropriate plans after assessing his abilities and limitations. Each student should have the opportunity of planning with the counselor a long-range program which coincides with his interests and abilities. In addition the teacher-counselor should assist pupils to plan a yearly program which outlines specific courses and activities.

To assure maximum effectiveness of guidance, the teacher-counselor should assist in informing teachers of significant facts about students enrolled in their classes. Often the classroom teacher will need help in the interpretation of these facts and should be given such service by the teacher-counselor.

Because many individuals do not work at their capacity, it is necessary for them to receive assistance from the teacher-counselor. This might necessitate some diagnosis for possible causes and planning for remedial procedures. Cases beyond the scope of the training and experience of the teacher should be referred to the proper source for aid.

The teacher-counselor should work on committees related to the planning of the guidance program. In many instances he might lead and direct the planning of the committee. Many of these committees will deal with the group activities involved in the guidance program which are designed to help the student in his total development. Frequently the teacher-counselor will be responsible for the directing of the orientation program. In all cases he should be aware of the importance of group activities as well as individual counseling.

It should be the task of each teacher who is doing counseling to study and practice good interviewing and counseling techniques. In addition he should seek training and practice in the use of cumulative records, the interpretation and use of tests, and the techniques of referral and follow-up.

Finally, it should be the responsibility of the teacher-counselor to know all the sources of guidance services in the school and community so that they may be used most effectively.

In summary, the role of the teacher in the guidance program has been discussed under four general headings: (1) understanding the pupils,

(2) developing a healthy personality, (3) dissemination of occupational materials, and (4) counseling. The first three areas were discussed in terms of all the teaching personnel of the school. The fourth area of counseling was discussed mainly from the point of view of some teachers who have special interest and additional preparation in guidance work.

## THE ROLE OF THE DIRECTOR OF GUIDANCE OR COUNSELOR

The individual who accepts the role of counselor in the guidance program may have many different titles. In some schools he may be known as the Dean, or the Director of Guidance, while in other schools he may be known as counselor or vice-principal. We are concerned in this section with discussing the duties and responsibilities of that person who is primarily responsible for the counseling of students and providing effective leadership and administration to the guidance program. Such responsibilities assume that such an individual's training and preparation has been governed by this function.

The major concern of the director should be the supervision of the entire guidance program. In this capacity he should provide the leadership necessary for the development of a guidance program and the coördination of the school and the community. In order to determine if effective coördination is being achieved, Hardee (22) lists the following criteria:

1. When the philosophy basic to counseling is analyzed and discussed by those who counsel.
2. When specific functions and responsibilities are defined and the duties of each officer understood by the other officers.
3. When the functions and responsibilities as defined are accepted by each officer and considered important and worth while.
4. When individuals who counsel are given opportunity to participate in policy-formation.
5. When there is an accounting made of the resources of counseling and the findings made known to all who counsel.
6. When a means for communication of ideas among persons responsible for counseling is provided, and when these channels of information are used.
7. When there is mutual deliberation on problems of individual students by those who counsel.
8. When there is a systematic evaluation of the counseling opportunities offered to students.

These criteria indicate that the personality of the director or counselor and his ability in human relationships will determine to a large degree his effectiveness as a coördinator.

The "director" (or counselor) should be responsible for the gathering of information about each student. In this capacity he will supervise the school's testing program and be responsible for the administration and interpretation of individual tests. He will encourage the teacher to introduce various guidance techniques in the classroom in order to assemble more information about pupils. It should be the responsibility of the counselor to develop efficient methods of recording information about the children and to devise functional means of disseminating this material to teachers. It is imperative that significant data be made available to those who can effectively use it.

The "director" (or counselor) should serve as a resource person for parents, administration, and teachers. Nevertheless, he should not assume the role of the "know all," nor become an authoritarian who knows the answers to all questions. According to Noel (31), teachers would like counselors to:

1. Dedicate their skills just to those who are "problems." All children need and profit by wise guidance, but unless everything is running so smoothly that there are no serious problems, guidance directors should not spread themselves too thin.
2. Talk to us (teachers) about the types of guidance they believe classroom teachers can render effectively, the kind that requires no special training but which ably assists in getting the jobs done. Guidance directors would reach more students more effectively if they established a corps of faculty assistants, those who really want to help—volunteers, not unwilling draftees.
3. Drop in once in a while at the end of the day and say: "What can I do for you? Is there a child whose problems we could work on together?" That would be a happy reminder of their departments and their services.
4. Develop fine relationships with the visiting teachers, the juvenile authorities, and the concerned parties.
5. Not take from classrooms children for "adjustment" when, perhaps, if left alone a week or two the children would have completed the alterations.
6. Have faith in their teachers. The guidance directors should know that they do not need to spare teachers adverse reports given the directors by the student with regard to instruction. Teachers can take criticism.

7. Avail themselves of the material contained in the reports sent to principals and school secretaries.

The "director" (or counselor) should be responsible for the collecting, filing, and dissemination of occupational information. Such material must be kept up to date so that every student will have access to current information about vocations or training that he or she is contemplating. It must be stressed that the counselor should maintain a close relationship with the local state employment services in order to have an adequate description of the local situation as well as the national scene.

It should be the responsibility of the "director" (or counselor) to offer a system of placement to assist graduates, dropouts, or part-time students in finding employment in accordance with their interests, needs, and abilities. He may perform such a function by establishing a relationship with the state employment office, the chamber of commerce, and labor union organizations. The service of placement should be broad enough to include assistance to pupils in their next step of training. This necessitates information about colleges, business schools, and trade schools, and the requirements for entrance into such schools, training offered, length of training, and demands for graduates.

These other services notwithstanding, the counseling of individual students is still a major responsibility of the director. Rothney and Roens (37) suggest some of these counseling activities:

1. Interpreting test results to students.
2. Assisting students in the choice of appropriate courses and curricula.
3. Analyzing reasons for students' failures and suggesting remedial procedures.
4. Stimulating students to put forth maximum efforts.
5. Providing occupational information and stimulating students to seek further information.
6. Assisting students in making choices of educational institutions for further training.
7. Assisting students to find means for financing post school education through work and scholarships.
8. Advising students concerning vocational placement and techniques of securing employment.
9. Analyzing and assisting students to analyze, their adjustment problems and suggesting remedial procedures.
10. Assisting students to improve their personal appearance.
11. Arranging for the correction of physical defects.

Thus, the previously mentioned responsibilities of the counselor provide the framework whereby he can more effectively perform the counseling activities in a face-to-face relationship with the students. In addition to the above activities, most counselors will supervise various group undertakings, consult with parents, and act as a public relations agent for the community about the guidance services.

In addition, the "director" (or counselor) should be the administrator for a general research program. Research is necessary for the evaluation of the guidance program so that improvements may be undertaken in both the curriculum and the guidance program. Such research should involve follow-up studies of both dropouts and graduates in order to provide information to students in solving their present problems and in planning for their future.

Inasmuch as the need for counseling begins early in life, it is imperative that the counseling function is initiated in the elementary school. Many of the duties of the elementary school counselors are similar to those of the secondary school person. However, the emphases upon the services differ according to age and maturational level of the pupil being guided. In summary, the following six areas are the functions of the elementary school counselors as seen by Martinson (26). Points 7, 8, and 9 are added by the writers to provide a total overview of a "director's" (or counselor's) responsibilities whether in elementary or high school.

1. The counselor works with school personnel in the study of individual children. In this work, through case studies, he interprets special needs to all who contact the youngster. He may use illustrative studies to promote total staff understanding of children.
2. The counselor plans with teachers, administrators, and curriculum workers for special provisions for individuals within the regular classroom and for special classrooms.
3. The counselor provides leadership in staff development and the use of an adequate record system. He assists in coördinating, interpreting, and promoting understanding of children through records. He works with other schools in matter of record, transfer, interpretation, and placement.
4. An important area of function is that of parent education. The counselor plans with school personnel to effect an on-going program aimed at understanding of child-needs and characteristics, and at the bases for modern school practices. Such a program might well include parents of preschool children as well as those of children in attendance.

5. In order to reach every teacher and every child, the counselor functions not only on a remedial basis, but also as the key person in furthering an overall mental health program. He maintains a balance between individual and group service. Since most group tests are designed for teacher use, he helps teachers to administer and use tests effectively. He works with them in such matters as understanding of children, curriculum evaluation, programming, and group relations.

6. The counselor serves as a coördinating agent with community groups which provide assistance in special cases. In working with clinics, he provides complete information regarding the child in the home and school. He works with the clinic in the interpretations of findings to the school.

7. The counselor should assemble, file, and disseminate occupational material.

8. The placement of students who drop out or graduate from school should be the responsibility of the counselor. This function should be broad enough to include the next step in training.

9. A development of a research program should be the responsibility of the counselor. By such a program, follow-up information can be used in evaluating present services and providing a basis for curricular changes and improvement of school program.

## OTHER GUIDANCE PERSONNEL

### The School Psychologist

In many instances the duties of a school psychologist would apparently be similar to that of the counselor. Despite some similarity, the psychologist is usually working with a district or county unit rather than one school. In addition, his background and training is oriented toward the "atypical" child while the counselor's orientation is toward the "normal" individual. Baker (4) states that the important public school needs for psychological service are in remedial work in reading, arithmetic, and speech. He goes on to say that it is the responsibility of the school psychologist to identify atypical cases and provide for their assistance through clinics, remedial classes, and suggestions to classroom teachers.

In 1953 there were two hundred-eighty school psychologists listed in the Directory of the American Psychological Association (1). The duties of such people include the following: (1) direction of group testing within the system; (2) diagnosis and treatment of superior children doing inferior work; children who have special ability; and children

whose behavior does not meet approved standards of the community; (3) analysis and disposal of problem cases; (4) bringing a unique point of view to bear upon educational problems; (5) conducting of research problems; and (6) rendering contributions to the general theory and practice of education. This list of functions represents the main services which a school psychologist may be expected to contribute.

## The Librarian

Without the coöperation of the librarian, it is very difficult to disseminate occupational material effectively. She is in a unique situation to make a valuable contribution to the guidance program. In order to increase students' awareness of guidance, many librarians have established guidance libraries, browsing tables, and special reading rooms devoted to stimulating information.

In order to perform efficiently this role in the guidance program, the librarian should (*16:66*):

1. Familiarize himself with the services of the guidance program.
2. Secure and file unbound occupational and educational information.
3. Maintain an "occupational shelf" for bound materials.
4. Make the library a laboratory for pupils seeking guidance materials.
5. Acquaint counselors and teachers with new guidance materials reaching the library.
6. Coöperate with administrators, counselors, and teachers, in making the library of service to pupils and staff members.

Unless the sixth duty is efficiently performed, the librarian cannot contribute her most valuable function.

## Health Service Personnel

The people constituting this group usually include the physician, psychiatrist, dentist, and school nurse.

The duties of the physician should include periodic physical examinations of all children. In addition, he should be available as a consultant for all problems pertaining to the physical health of the child.

A student's emotional difficulties may be so serious and so deep-rooted that school guidance personnel are unable to cope with the problem. Every school should have at its disposal the services of a psychiatrist who can assist students who exhibit symptoms of a serious mental illness.

At the present time dental care has been usually in the form of an examination, but some larger schools may provide some dental treatment. It seems that the school should maintain a relationship with a competent dentist whereby periodical dental examinations may be given to all children in school.

The school nurse can make a valuable contribution to the guidance program as well as to the total school situation. Such activities have been well presented by Erickson and Happ (*15*) as follows:

1. The school nurse and her assistant are responsible for determining the physical fitness of each pupil for school work. This is accomplished by one or more physical examinations.
2. This staff recommends changes in the pupil's program in the light of his physical condition.
3. The nurse's office brings pupils who need medical and dental services to the attention of the school doctor and dentist.
4. The school nurse brings to the attention of the parents the physical defects of the pupil and follows up recommendations in order to determine whether any remedial measures have been taken.
5. The nurse's office provides excellent tryout experiences in the nursing profession for a large number of girls who are employed there.

*Others*

There are a number of other school personnel, especially in larger schools, that contribute significantly to the guidance services: the visiting teacher, social worker, speech correctionist, and remedial reading specialist. All of these different specialists share some common goals, although each arrives at his objectives by different methods and techniques. Such personnel should be concerned with: (1) discovering limitations of pupils and assisting them in making adequate adjustments, (2) helping teachers with their problems, (3) coöperating with the counselor, and (4) working with parents and various community agencies in promoting the general welfare of the student.

<div align="center">SUMMARY</div>

The effectiveness of any guidance program will depend primarily upon the people involved. While the organization and duties of guidance personnel will vary from school to school, it is important that each perceive his functions and role in the total guidance program. It was the purpose of this chapter to point out and clarify the duties of each type of personnel involved.

The key person in developing a guidance program is the administrator. Without his support and leadership the program cannot be effective. A discussion of his duties indicated that he should perform the following functions: (1) recognize the need for guidance and support such a program, (2) provide a budget for carrying on a guidance program, (3) select the best qualified personnel for guidance and assign their responsibilities, (4) provide adequate time and facilities for guidance purposes, (5) provide leadership in adapting curriculum to needs of the students, and (6) act as a public relations agent to the school staff, board of education, and community.

For years teachers have been performing guidance functions, but they should become more conscious of their specific responsibilities. By doing so they can endeavor to increase their efficiency in these duties and recognize their relationship to the total guidance program. All teachers can make a contribution to the guidance program by: (1) developing a better understanding of the children they teach, (2) providing an emotional atmosphere that will be conducive to good personality development, and (3) providing occupational information in their classes. Certain teachers will also perform a number of counseling functions. These duties will perhaps require a keener interest in children as well as some additional training. The counseling responsibilities of the teacher-counselor will involve gathering of information, using data in an individual counseling relationship, providing information to other teachers, working on group guidance activities, and screening and referring problem cases which are beyond his scope of training and experience.

The individual responsible for directing the guidance program and performing the counseling function may answer to many different titles. In this chapter he has been referred to as the director of guidance or counselor. A designation of his duties would include the following: (1) responsibility for the testing program; (2) providing leadership for the entire guidance program; (3) counseling of individual students; (4) consulting and working with teachers, administrators, and parents in the individual study of children; (5) coördinating school and community agencies that provide services for children; (6) collecting, filing, and disseminating occupational information; (7) placing students in the proper curriculum within the school and assisting them in the next step of training outside the school; and (8) conducting research to aid in the improvement of the guidance services and the entire school program.

In addition, the functions of the school psychologist, librarian, health

personnel, visiting teacher, social worker, and speech correctionist were described. The emphasis was on the coöperation of all to provide effective guidance services for pupils from the time they enter the school until they make an adequate adjustment to the community.

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CHAPTER 3 ────────────

## *The Requirements of an Efficient Guidance Worker*

### INTRODUCTION

THE effectiveness of any guidance program will depend primarily upon the qualifications of the personnel involved. Despite little consideration of their qualifications or training for the position, people who have lost their usefulness in other areas have been frequently assigned to guidance duties. The continuation of such practices can weaken initial effort or rapidly deteriorate a strong guidance program already in operation. An administrator can make a significant contribution by selecting capable and qualified personnel to perform the guidance duties—whether they be classroom teachers or specialized, trained counselors. Accordingly, these people should receive compensation commensurate with the duties of and qualifications for the position. The qualifications and training of individuals selected to perform such duties are the major concern of this chapter.

The ordinary procedure would be to determine the duties that each person would perform, ascertain the necessary competencies in effectively performing the tasks, and then ascertain desirable training procedures in achieving these competencies. Before undertaking these analyses let us relate the qualifications of present guidance workers.

### QUALIFICATIONS OF PRESENT WORKERS

A review of the literature indicates a variety of differences in the qualifications of guidance workers. A survey of 406 guidance workers in

high schools supervised by the North Central Association of Secondary Schools indicated that 50 percent of the counselors had training in specific guidance courses, and all had had teaching experiences (45). Three hundred forty-four of the respondents felt that teaching experience was valuable, but less than half would recommend a specific number of years. After studying school guidance workers in Washington state, Goheen and Ohlsen (25) concluded that there was a need for more adequate training. A survey of college personnel workers by members of the committee of the American College Personnel Association indicated deficiencies in both training and experience (28).

After reviewing the literature on Guidance Workers' Qualifications, Froehlich (22) concludes that "Surveys of employed guidance workers have thrown little light on the training needed, but have revealed the great disparity between recommended training and that actually possessed by on-the-job counselors." Most recommendations for the training of the guidance specialist agree that the counselor needs more specialized training than that required of teachers.

Recognizing that despite definite progress in the training and qualifications of persons performing guidance duties, the situation is far from ideal. It is practical at this point to examine the necessary competencies for a successful guidance worker.

## COMPETENCIES OF GUIDANCE WORKERS [1]

Chapter 2 was devoted to the description of the duties of the various personnel in the guidance program. All employees of the school can make a contribution to this program. A survey of the various tasks indicates that the efficient guidance worker should possess competencies in the following areas: (1) counseling techniques, (2) analysis of the individual, (3) occupational information, and (4) administrative relationships. It is assumed that the level of ability for all guidance workers will not be the same, nor the extent of training identical. More consideration will be given to this topic in subsequent pages.

### Competencies in Counseling Techniques

In considering the ability or skill necessary for the performance of the duty or function, we realize that knowledge cannot entirely be separated

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[1] The authors are indebted to the series of reports published by the United States Office of Education covering the various counselor competencies. They provide much of the material for this section of the chapter.

from skill or ability. However, the necessary information for the professional worker will be discussed under areas of training.

The first competency of the guidance worker is the ability to identify pupils who would benefit by such a service. This ability seems to be two-fold: (1) skill in human relationships when dealing with resource personnel, and (2) skill in identifying students who need counseling.

The counselor's relationship with his fellow workers is as vital as his relationship with students. Only when the counselor maintains a congenial relationship with all guidance personnel and community resources can he expect to serve as a referral agent for counseling. This relationship between the counselor and other personnel should not be a one-way process with counselor telling others "who" should be counseled, but rather a mutual, coöperative relationship in the identification of students.

Skill in identifying pupils who need counseling requires insight into the various techniques and tools that can be used in isolating problems. A discussion of these methods will be found in a subsequent topic.

A second requirement is the ability to interpret data from either significant or irrelevant clues. In interpreting the value of data the counselor is making a tentative diagnosis and prediction of success of the problem. Without a dependable diagnosis the program of action planned by the student with the counselor as a way of achieving adjustment may not meet his needs (55:145). The guidance worker should possess the necessary skills and abilities to enable him to select the pertinent data from the individual inventory. Such data may be used to compile case studies, so that the material therein can be used in interviewing, and in the pre-counseling and post-counseling periods.

Because the interview is the heart of the counseling process the professional worker must possess many skills in its use. Symonds (48) notes the following qualifications of an interviewer: (1) a thorough familiarity with the field of investigation, (2) an awareness of forces at play in the life of the counselee, (3) an ability to follow up promising clues, (4) a good adjustment of his own life, (5) an ability to command respect without awing his clients, (6) a sincere and sympathetic understanding, (7) a courteous and respectful regard for his client, and (8) a sense of humor. These qualifications indicate that the counselor should possess skills in gaining rapport, using information known about the client, and helping the client to evaluate his own problem, as well as skills in observing, listening, questioning, and talking.

A fourth counseling qualification is the ability to use the school and community resources. A wide variety of information concerning the availability of various services within the community and school is required to relate such data to the needs of the pupils being counseled. This information must include such educational and occupational information that will help the student to solve his problem while in school and also provide a means for bridging the gap between various phases of his school and post-school life.

Every personnel worker should know when to terminate counseling and how to evaluate its effectiveness. The counselor must have the ability to identify those people whom he can no longer help. He must be able to reassure these counselees that they may return for any future help they need. Improvements in counseling are dependent upon the evaluation of current and future techniques. The counselor must be skillful in establishing criteria for judging the effectiveness of various techniques and his proficiency in using them (49). Only by such a procedure can our present methods and techniques be improved and the contribution of counseling to adjustment be ascertained.

The final competency in counseling techniques to be included in this discussion relates to the ability of the guidance worker to keep informed of the professional developments in the field. Not only must a competent counselor be familiar with current literature but he must also participate in professional organizations in which recent developments in the field of guidance are evaluated. Furthermore, the counselor should not confine his activities to his specific area; he should maintain such liaison with other professions as will enable him to be familiar with the development and trends in other areas.

In summary, the following competencies seem desirable for guidance workers in counseling techniques:

1. The ability to use various techniques to identify pupils who are in need of counseling.
2. The ability to select and organize pertinent data so that a tentative diagnosis can be related to a program of action in the counseling process.
3. The ability to use various techniques in interviewing whereby rapport can be established, self-understanding cultivated, plan of action initiated, and referrals made where necessary.
4. The ability to select and use all pertinent school and community resources in counseling.

5. The ability to recognize the limits at which counseling should be terminated and to adopt methods for evaluating the effectiveness of counseling.
6. The initiative to pursue new developments in the counseling field through both training and participation in professional organizations.

## Competencies in the Analysis of the Individual

The more we know about the individual the more we can assist him. Desirable as it is to know everything about the individual, the experienced counselor soon learns that this is impossible. Requisite, then, to the skills of collecting data is a knowledge of what information is important. Although it is not our purpose to stress the specific kinds of information to be collected, in general, the types of information that should be secured fall into two major categories: (1) longitudinal information, which provides a picture of the individual over a period of time; and (2) cross-sectional information, which provides an analysis of the present status of the individual.

Guidance workers should be proficient in the use of various techniques and tools used to gain information about the pupil. The techniques of gathering information are broader than tests alone; they should include the use of informal methods as well as standardized procedures. "To know which tool to use, when to use it, and how to weigh its results, therefore, is basic to the development of any effective counselor" (27:90–91).

A third competency of the guidance worker is to be qualified in methods for recording and maintaining data gained about the individual. This requires skill in using a record system that will easily identify and present the pertinent information. The test profile, for example, presents the test results in the simplest and clearest form; trained and experienced personnel can quickly grasp their significance. After a test has been carefully administered, every precaution should be taken in the scoring and recording; otherwise the results may be meaningless and misleading.

That data may become meaningful, the personnel worker should be able to organize it in terms of human growth and development. To do this adequately the worker must have sufficient knowledge of human development and behavior sequences. He should know, for example, that although every individual *is* unique in some respects, in his growth there are many characteristics common to others. The skillful guidance worker will know how to organize ·· . .

common characteristics can be easily noted. Unique characteristics of the student will then stand out and can be readily identified.

Because the dynamics and structure of each person can be interpreted only in terms of his cultural environment, the ability to relate the data gathered about the individual to his total environment is also an important competency. Each item of information must be interpreted within the context of what is known about the total personality. The Commission on Teacher Education states it this way:

> Every teacher should have skill in working out the meaningful relationships between facts about a child or a group and the relevant scientific generalizations. These relationships between principles and specific information must be sufficiently extensive to yield valid diagnosis of the meaning of a situation for a child, of the developmental tasks and adjustment problems he faces, of the motivation that underlies his behavior in a given situation, and of the interpersonal relations that are operative in the class of which he is a part (14).

The commission reminds us that very few teachers have had any practical training in this area and thus lack the skill of relating data gained about pupils to general scientific principles of behavior. Wrenn (60) presents the following factors as necessary for adequate interpretation of any specific data:

1. Understanding of the basic growth and development factors in pre-adolescence and adolescence.
2. Understanding of the scope and dynamics of the total area of personality about which information is desired (social, intellectual, interests, health, emotional) and appreciation that any one procedure supplies information on only a limited part of that total area.
3. Understanding of varying extent to which emotional coloring affects the different categories of information, i.e., information conveyed by the counselee about social status may be more affected by prestige and self-deception factors inherent within himself than information about health record or physical health status.
4. Knowledge of the relative economic and social level of that part of society of the community from which the individual comes.
5. Knowledge of or (better still) experience by the counselor in the type of school from which the student has come to college.
6. Experience in or knowledge of the several educational or vocational environments for which planning may be done.
7. Skill in the use of a considerable variety of techniques for understanding and dealing with individuals and with individuals in groups.

8. Skill in utilizing data disclosed by each procedure, with full awareness of the limitations and constant errors inherent in each procedure.

Although the above skills and knowledges are oriented for the college personnel worker, they are very applicable to the guidance worker at the elementary and secondary levels.

## Competencies in Occupational Information

In the majority of guidance programs occupational information is the weakest link in the group of guidance activities (26:1). In a survey of college courses offered for counselor preparation, the Office of Education found that only about 10 percent of the institutions investigated provided a class to prepare counselors to counsel on occupations (21).

Occupational information is defined as accurate, current analysis and interpretation of data pertinent to the process of occupational selection, preparation, placement, and adjustment (50). Because of the many vocational opportunities and the multipotentiality of individuals, it is necessary that the guidance worker have certain skills in occupational counseling.

The guidance worker should be proficient in the various methods of classifying occupations such as the United States Census classification, the Dictionary of Occupational Titles, the Minnesota Occupational Rating Scale, and the various classifications arising from tests such as the Strong, Kuder, and Occupational interest inventories. In turn, the competent worker must be able to use the symbols of such classifications in analyzing occupational fields and individual jobs. Hahn and MacLean (27:166) indicate that the counselor should be in a position to identify the brothers, sisters, aunts, and cousins of specific job titles and trace this kinship through aptitudes, abilities, and interests even though the names give no indication of such relationship.

The efficient counselor must be skillful in utilizing the various sources of occupational information whether at the local, state, or national level. In some cases this might require him to make a survey and write a job description of the local community. Such a requirement demands a thorough knowledge of what constitutes an adequate job account. To discriminate pertinent from irrelevant facts, every guidance worker should possess some proficiency in the analysis of occupational trends.

The qualified personnel worker should keep informed of the socioeconomic factors which affect occupational trends and requirements. He

must have a knowledge of the economic, sociological, psychological, and industrial labor factors which affect jobs. This does not mean that he should be a specialist in each of these areas, but he should recognize those who are specialists and know the various sources of material that will provide him with such information.

That the guidance worker may meet his responsibility in helping students to survey and select employment opportunities, he needs to know: (1) sources of material on training opportunities, (2) services which help place the student after he has completed his training, and (3) how to determine local employment opportunities (26:5).

Each professional worker should possess skill in the collection, evaluation, and filing of occupational material. To perform an adequate job of collecting information, the worker must: (1) know the various resources that furnish such data, and (2) evaluate such material in terms of predetermined criteria. Occupational material can be filed in numerous ways, and the counselor should acquire a knowledge of the various methods and techniques to make or adapt one which will meet the local needs.

Because the collecting of occupational material is only a means to an end, guidance personnel should be skillful in the dissemination of such information. This requires that they utilize some of the various techniques of presenting such information, whether it be in a counseling situation or through courses, films, career days, orientation, etc. All of the above competencies have been oriented to this goal.

In summary, the guidance worker should possess the following competencies in the area of occupational information:

1. The ability to use the various methods of classifying the world of work.
2. A knowledge of an adequate job description and the various resources that furnish such data.
3. A knowledge of socio-economic factors that influence occupations.
4. The ability to relate training requirements and facilities to occupational opportunities.
5. Skill in using efficient methods for filing of occupational information.
6. The ability to use various techniques in the dissemination of occupational information.

## Competencies in Administrative Relationships

In the section on competencies in counseling techniques, skills of an administrative nature were implied. Faculty relationships and the use of referral agents would require administrative skills. However, we shall

discuss here additional skills of an administrative nature which *every counselor* should possess. The counselor, as used in this particular context, refers to the individual who heads or directs the guidance program. With this explanation the question arises, what specific administrative skills should a counselor possess?

In the first place, the counselor should possess the executive ability necessary to organize and administer the guidance program. Some of the specific skills are: (1) a knowledge of various organizational structures and the skill necessary to implement the one that would best fit the local situation, (2) administrative ability in directing the program and dealing with all the people and agencies concerned, (3) the talent to anticipate the time, equipment, supplies, and physical facilities necessary to evaluate the effectiveness of the guidance program, and the ability to inject such knowledge into the program in order to perform a more adequate service.

A foregoing paragraph referred to the importance of counselor-skill in dealing with various people and agencies. This is especially true when working with the diverse forces within the school environment. Needed competencies in this area are: (1) an understanding and ability to instill the philosophy and objectives of guidance into all members of the school staff, (2) skill in presenting the contribution of the guidance program to the total educational objectives of the school, (3) the ability to work with the administrators and teachers in applying the resources of the program to administrative and instructional problems, and (4) the ability to identify and use data to develop or change the curriculum.

Because the guidance program does not and should not operate in a vacuum separated from the community, the counselor must possess certain administrative and human relation skills when dealing with these various forces. He should be aware of resources in the community that will increase the efficiency of his program and in turn recognize the service that he can perform to different community groups. Recognizing that guidance is a continuing process, the counselor should work with community organizations in the development of preschool and postschool guidance services.

In summary, the special competencies in this area evolve around two general points: (1) an understanding by the counselor concerning the philosophy, functions, and activities of the guidance program in the school and community, and (2) the skill of the counselor in handling human relationships in the developing of these understandings.

*Levels of Competencies for Various Guidance Workers*

In reading the above section one may question whether or not any guidance worker possesses all the competencies indicated. Such qualifications might imply that a person fulfilling this position would be required to attend school many years beyond the bachelor's degree and in addition have considerable experience in the business and industrial world. Obviously, all who perform some guidance duties cannot possess all of these competencies. It is fairly well agreed that there are various levels of counseling which require different kinds and degrees of skills. The degrees and kinds of competencies that each guidance worker should possess will depend upon the duties that he is to perform. In chapter 2 we discussed some of the guidance duties of the teacher, teacher-counselor, and counselor. Each of these workers should possess the necessary abilities to perform their responsibilities effectively. The highly skilled specialist should be competent in all these areas. It is feasible, and often a case in fact, that a person may initiate guidance work at the teacher level and then through additional training and experience progress to the teacher-counselor or counselor level. Many of the present workers in the field have gained their positions through this very process.

Another important question is whether or not elementary school guidance workers should possess the same training and techniques as guidance workers in the secondary school.

The authors have assumed throughout this book that guidance in the elementary school is essential, in fact imperative, if the total development and adjustment of the child is the goal of education. As Davis (16) states:

When we reflect that almost a third of the pupils enrolled in the primary school drop out by the time they finish the intermediate school, it takes little thought to conclude that the pupil's later scholastic success depends largely on the foundation received in his early years. We need scarcely mention that many personality traits in the period of adolescence are developed in the lower grades; and, certainly, health habits essential to efficient living are not usually developed in later years. So individual guidance carried on from the nursery school to the sixth or eighth grade can eventuate in situations which obviate the need for much guidance in the later years. On the other hand, no doubt, certain habits and deficiencies that are developed in the early years cannot be readily changed in later personnel programs.

All elementary teachers should have guidance training for their responsibilities, but most of that training will be for good teachership rather than the technical training required of experts (54:8). Because the elementary teacher is constantly associated with his pupils in the process of directing their learning activities, the training of such an individual can hardly be overemphasized.

However, if the guidance philosophy permeates the faculty of the elementary school, some teachers will possess more guidance skills than others. To provide a coördinated and functioning guidance program, someone should be designated and trained to organize and administer the undertaking. Only by such a procedure can the faculties and talents of everyone be effectively used. The question then arises, should that individual, either teacher or principal, possess the same competencies as those who are rendering similar services in the secondary school?

The efficient elementary school guidance worker should possess the same skills in counseling, individual analysis, and administrative relationships as do other public school guidance workers. In regard to occupational information skills, the elementary worker will not need all of the detailed information in order to perform an efficient service. As Willey states (54:8):

> Vocational guidance does have a place in the elementary school, but only to the extent that special abilities and interests be recognized and given a chance for expression. There should be little time spent in the training of special skills for specific vocations. The elementary-school child learns much about the occupations of the world and about the people in them. Notwithstanding, guidance in the elementary school is more concerned with social and emotional adjustment, and with getting along with one's self and with other people, than it is with vocational preparation.

For these reasons the elementary school guidance workers will not need the same level of competency in the occupational information area as will counselors functioning in secondary schools. It seems feasible, however, that in many respects the elementary school guidance worker should have even more competences than the secondary school person because of the aspects of personality development pertaining to the elementary pupil.

## SELECTION OF GUIDANCE WORKERS

Because so much importance is being placed on the value of the guidance worker to a total educational program, some concern should be

given to his selection and training. We are concerned in this section with some of the qualities that a worker should possess before being designated for training as a counselor, and in the following section we shall discuss some of the areas of study that such a person should receive.

## Personal Qualities

Jones (*34*) summarized the findings of five different studies showing the personal characteristics of successful counselors. The following traits are those agreed upon by three out of the five studies:

1. Sincerity
2. Personality
3. Good character and wholesome philosophy
4. Health
5. Emotional stability
6. Approachability, friendliness
7. Ability to get along with people
8. Sympathetic understanding of youth
9. Intelligence, mental alertness
10. Social culture
11. Broad knowledge and interests
12. Leadership
13. Professional attitude
14. Interest in guidance and personnel work
15. Understanding of classroom conditions
16. Understanding of working conditions
17. Understanding of social and economic conditions

The committee on training in Clinical Psychology of the American Psychological Association recommended that the counselor possess the following characteristics (*1*):

1. Superior intellectual ability and judgment
2. Originality, resourcefulness, and versatility
3. "Fresh and insatiable" curiosity; "self-learner"
4. Interest in persons as individuals rather than as material for manipulation—a regard for the integrity of other persons
5. Insight into his own personality and characteristics; sense of humor
6. Sensitivity to the complexities of motivation
7. Tolerance; unarrogance
8. Ability to adopt a "therapeutic" attitude; ability to establish warm and effective relationships with others
9. Industry; methodical work habits; ability to tolerate pressure

10. Acceptance of responsibility
11. Tact and coöperativeness
12. Integrity, self-control, and stability
13. Discriminating sense of ethical values
14. Breadth of cultural background—"educated man"
15. Deep interest in psychology, particularly in clinical aspects.

The personal qualifications of a prospective and practicing counselor can be placed in four groups: scholastic aptitude, interests, activities, and personality factors. Any one of these groups may not provide sufficient evidence for selection, but a combination of all four should indicate a pattern of interest in and an ability to work with people (51).

In selecting a person possessing these characteristics many indices should be used. The past academic achievement record of the individual and his participation in groups and activities should be given considerable attention. Various psychometric tests can be very helpful in choosing such a person. Ratings of fellow workers might be another index. In all respects the criteria for selection should be based on many rather than a few factors.

## Experience

Because the professional guidance worker will be serving in educational institutions, it is not unreasonable to expect him to have had some successful teaching experience. Most states require from one to three years of teaching experience for a counselor certificate. Through such experience the counselor can appreciate the problems of teachers and understand some of the difficulties of students. The counselor is often required to teach at least one class in addition to his guidance duties in order to keep him aware of educational techniques and developments.

Because the counselor should possess a breadth of experience, it is desirable that he have work experience other than in education. A background in business and industry would be highly beneficial to him. One group of writers suggests that the counselor should have at least one year of cumulative work experience in a field or fields other than school work (51:4). Paterson and others (41) suggest that counselors should have two years' paid, full-time, recent employment in individual diagnostic work, carried on in conjunction with vocational rehabilitation, vocational and educational guidance, employment or personnel work, and related types of service.

Additional experiences needed by professional guidance personnel will be determined largely by the training and education. The following section will point out areas of training for the professional guidance worker.

## AREAS OF TRAINING

We shall not be concerned here with the number of courses the guidance worker should have taken nor with the degree that should be awarded. Rather we are interested in pointing out some of the areas in which the professional worker should have training regardless of whether it be by formal educational courses, experience, or in-service training. However, if the individuals possess training in all the areas mentioned it is recognized that their formal educational experience will be at or beyond the master's degree level. A joint committee on counselor preparation found common agreement in seven "core" fields of knowledge to be acquired at graduate level and considered essential for counselors (39). These fields will be used as the basis for discussion in this section.

### Philosophy and Principles of Guidance and Counseling

The vitally important philosophy and principles of guidance can be provided in an orientation course presenting a general overview of the guidance program and its general objectives. Such a course should acquaint the student with the necessary training for the performance of guidance duties (36). Other subject matter of this course might deal with the background and development of the counseling and guidance movement and its contribution to an educational program.

### Growth and Development of the Individual

Psychological knowledge in the following fields: learning, developmental psychology, personality dynamics, and motivation are noted as fundamental material in the training of counselors by the Board of Examiners in Professional Psychology of the American Psychological Association (1948). A significant requirement for intelligent guidance is the knowledge of the learning process, especially as the learning process constitutes a change which results in growth (54:6). Woolf and Woolf (58:332) note that learning should be included in the trainee's study and might include dimensions of learning, learning

through activity, laws of learning, learning attitudes, and forces which operate in the context of learning. Hahn and MacLean (27:33) also recommend training in the psychology of learning.

"The trainee should become familiar with the general course of human development from infancy to maturity, with special emphasis on the characteristics of the adolescent period. He should be able to recognize signs of immaturity for what they are and to understand the characteristic problems of the older adolescent" (4). Not only should counselors know characteristics of adolescent groups, but also they should recognize that the individual adolescent may have problems according to his own peculiar situation and needs.

In addition to a knowledge of the learning process and human growth and development, the guidance worker should understand the dynamic factors influencing human behavior such as emotions, attitudes, and interests. Because these factors are often social in nature the trainee should also be aware of the various factors in society that influence the individual. Furthermore, the counselor should be acquainted with the common sequences or patterns of behavior and common ways in which students have successfully met difficult school, home, or community situations (46). Throughout his training the guidance worker should increase his awareness of individual differences, yet be cognizant of the common denominator underlying all behavior in people.

## Techniques Used in the Study of the Individual

Inasmuch as the individual is the central point in a guidance and counseling program, training in techniques for studying the individual can hardly be overemphasized. All authorities note this training as a requisite in a counselor's educational program.[2] The diverse techniques in which the professional guidance worker should have training are well summarized by Blum and Balinsky (10). They are: (1) observation, (2) autobiographies, (3) interview, (4) tests and inventories, (5) records, (6) physical capacities appraisal, (7) reports from professional sources, (8) questionnaire methods, (9) rating scales, (10) anecdotal records, (11) projective techniques, (12) sociometric techniques, (13) home visits, and (14) synthesis of data. The Board of Examiners in Professional Psychology of the American Psychological Association (1948) lists the following two areas as fundamental for the counselor: (1) tests and measurements, covering such topics as item analysis, relia-

[2] See any of the previous references.

bility and validity, validation studies, norm groups and data on representative psychometric theories; and (2) statistics, covering such topics as central tendency, variability; (3) tests of significances, correlational and factorial methods, and analysis of variance. Without a knowledge of this fundamental material effective use of the various techniques is impossible.

## Techniques of Collecting and Using Occupational and Educational Information

Recognizing that a knowledge of techniques in collecting and using occupational and educational information is essential, Kitson (36) lists three important areas of training in this category. They are: (1) techniques of assembling information about occupations. Here the trainee should be introduced to occupational literature and taught how to assemble, evaluate, and file it. (2) Methods of research in the occupations. The student should be taught how to analyze occupational fields and certain specific occupations as well as methods of making a survey of community occupations. (3) Methods of imparting occupational information. This involves training in methods of group presentation and the use of information in counseling.

Woolf and Woolf (58:341) suggest study of some of the following specific subjects: the American work scene; changes in our socio-economic pattern; contributions made by all kinds of workers to society; appreciation of all kinds of workers and their jobs; the importance of job satisfaction to the individual; emotions as they affect productivity; personality as a factor in vocational choice and in productivity; the relationship of interest, abilities, and special aptitudes to vocational choice; occupational trends; and vocational rehabilitations.

In addition, the trainee should know something about occupational training and placement facilities. This implies a knowledge of various types of schools and apprenticeship programs, the requirements for entrance, and the opportunities for placement after completion. All of these are interrelated aspects of the effective collecting and use of information.

## Techniques Used in Counseling

Because counseling is the heart of the guidance program, every professional worker should show proficiency in its techniques. "A study of interviewing, the making of case studies, case analysis, various methods

of counseling, record keeping, and problems of students are commonly included within the area of counseling and personnel methods" (58: 336–337). Hahn and MacLean (27:33) suggest studies in the following areas: (1) tools and techniques of counseling, (2) psychotherapy, (3) case studies, and (4) problems of, and therapy for, the physically, mentally, and emotionally handicapped. Williamson (55:58–59) would have the trainee take an introductory course in the principles of mental hygiene and types of student maladjustment to be followed by an advanced course in specific methods and techniques of diagnosing and counseling.

Because counseling success depends so greatly on the development of rapport between the counselor and counselee, it is important for the trainee to develop and clarify his own relationship in such a situation. Rogers (44) feels that an important goal of training is helping the student to understand and clarify his own basic relationship to people, as well as to acquire the necessary attitudinal and philosophical concomitants of that relationship. Thus, emphasis is put on permissiveness, acceptance, and respect for the individual.

Although often neglected, another important aspect of training is in methods of evaluating the effectiveness of counseling. A general knowledge of research methods, including sampling theory, is necessary for effective evaluation studies.

### Administrative and Community Relationships

The guidance worker is often involved in administrative and organizational duties. Such functions involve the total school faculty and often extend into the community. Thus, it is essential for a person trained in guidance to have a knowledge of administrative principles and how they apply to personnel work. Related topics might lead to problems of coördination, securing the coöperation of the faculty, relationships of various personnel services to each other, suitable records and other means of communication, referral process, and the use of personnel methods in selecting and supervising the staff (58:343).

The trainee should understand how community agencies can be used in the guidance program and the various techniques of referral in using such resources. He should be cognizant of how the guidance program can serve the community and the various methods of informing the public of such services. Thus, a course in public relations would be a beneficial adjunct of the training program.

## Supervised Experiences

It is generally agreed that the guidance worker in training should have some supervised practice in personnel service. Methods of providing such practice may range from laboratory practice in connection with course work to extended assignment in a field situation (52). Some desirable activities in this area mentioned by the ninth conference of state supervisors and counselor-trainers are:

1. Experience in evaluating, counseling, and guiding student planning and registration procedures.
2. Practice in organizing, developing, and carrying through pupil orientation procedures.
3. Practice in administering, scoring, and interpreting group and individual tests of various types.
4. Practice in recording and interpreting appraisal data and other cumulative record information.
5. Practice in making case studies and responsibilities for conducting a case conference.
6. Practice in counseling pupils on personal, social, and vocational problems.
7. Practice in writing case notes and interview summaries.
8. Practice in follow-up work with pupils, teachers, and parents.
9. Practice in group activities with guidance implications such as school clubs, social functions, occupational courses or units, home-room programs, career days, community occupational surveys, and other group activities.
10. Participation in evaluation and research concerning guidance activities.

Whatever activities are used, the purpose of such a supervised program should be to provide the trainee with actual experience that will enable him to understand and perform his duties when he completes his training.

After noting these various areas of training for the professional guidance worker one might wonder if such requirements must be fulfilled for certification, and if so, how many states require certificates for counselors?

## Certification of Counselors

Authorities in the guidance field recognize the value of establishing certification requirements for the professional worker. As yet, the goal of introducing such requirements in all states has not been achieved.

An analysis of Woellner and Wood's (57) manual on certification requirements reveals the following:

1. Twelve states have no specific requirement for counselors.
2. Six states list nothing concerning counselor requirements.
3. Six states have counselor certification the same as teacher certification.
4. Twenty-four states specify a certain number of credit hours in guidance for certification.
5. Eighteen states require teaching experience while fourteen require work experience for certification.

Regardless of the desirability of specialized training for a counselor, 50 percent of the states have not as yet required that training. In a survey of 105 selected city school systems, Yeo (61) found 40 percent had established definite standards or certification requirements. Seven other cities noted that they have made a tentative or partial formulation of standards. Thus, while a definite upward trend toward certification requirements exists, a great deal of work must continue before any universality is even approximated. Nevertheless, counseling apparently parallels the developmental history of other occupations which have become recognized as professional (20).

## IN-SERVICE TRAINING

Because many of our current guidance workers are inadequately trained, and because teachers need training in guidance techniques to perform their role, an in-service training program is imperative. The burden of guidance tasks will be carried by teachers rather than by professionally trained counselors. The school, therefore, should offer a regular program for in-service training in which the preparation of teachers is brought up or maintained at the level whereby an effective program of guidance can be established (13).

The entire program of stimulating faculty interest in guidance should be based on the following principles:

1. The program should start with the problems which the faculty considers important.
2. The program should begin at a point consistent with the faculty's present degree of guidance training.
3. The program should be planned in consultation with the faculty members who are to participate in it.
4. The program should attempt to reveal desirable practices and activities now being carried on in the school.

5. The program should attempt to find out and build on the interests of teachers.
6. The principal should arrange the in-service training program so that a reasonable part of it can be held during the school day.
7. The principal should show an interest in the program and participate in it to the fullest extent that his other duties will permit.
8. The program should permit theory and practice to be carried on at the same time.
9. The program should parallel, insofar as possible, the daily duties of the staff.
10. The program should provide for the continuous professional growth of teachers.
11. The program should include special training activities for the counselors.
12. The administration should assume the major responsibilities for organizing and carrying on the in-service program (18).

The in-service program should be established on the basis of the needs and interests of the participants. However, it is important that guidance personnel acquire the skill and knowledge that will enable them to perform the duties expected of them. Therefore, the training of the teacher, administrator, and counselor may be different because of the variation in their respective duties. In addition, such a program should help understanding of common problems encountered by all in the pursuit of the school objectives.

Several training methods can be used in the in-service education program. Each school or group should adopt those methods best suited to needs, facilities, and interests. The following methods were suggested by a committee of state supervisors and counselor-trainers concerned with this problem (19).

1. Formal courses—which may include extension classes on school time, evening classes, summer courses, workshops, seminars, or supervised practice.
2. Workshops—which may meet for one or two days, for a week, or several hours each week. Usually the purpose of a workshop is to develop specific competencies or to provide an opportunity for a group to work together on a specific project such as developing plans and materials for local use.
3. Conferences—this may include a short conference on a specific problem, a conference series planned to cover a specific guidance activity, or a conference on related areas such as curriculum planning.

4. Observation—through field trips and observing successful programs in action.

5. Demonstrations—usually involve a visit by a qualified counselor who actually demonstrates selected guidance activities in the local school, utilizing local records, information, materials, and local pupils.

6. Institutes, faculty meetings, and study groups—these provide opportunities to discuss different topics and use various resources for training. Joint teacher-parent-counselor study groups should not be overlooked in this respect.

7. Supervisory contacts—every available opportunity for utilizing the services of state guidance personnel and counselor-trainers in promoting and developing in-service education programs should be explored.

8. Supervised practice in guidance—this gives participants actual experience in guidance activities. Work experience in non-academic situations will also provide valuable experience.

The in-service training program must be evaluated continuously to determine if it is meeting needs. The ultimate purpose of the in-service program is to improve the guidance services in the school. Therefore, one effective way of evaluating in-service education is to examine the guidance program and its effect before and after the training is inaugurated (9). Without continuous evaluation little improvement can be expected.

Throughout this chapter emphasis has been directed to the continued growth of the professional guidance worker. It is appropriate to conclude this discussion with a proposed code of ethics for the counselor as stated by Erickson (17). Any counselor or guidance worker seeking to grow in the performance of his duties should consider this code, and all teachers may very well adopt it as an aid to progress in the understanding and developing of guidance competencies.

A counselor:

1. in respecting the dignity of each counselee, gives him his primary allegiance. A counselor accepts responsibility for safeguarding the confidential relationship between him and the counselee. In his writing, speaking, and interviewing he makes it clear that counselors have a relationship to counselees similar to that of lawyers to clients, or doctors to patients.

2. accepts all who seek his assistance but does not allow the demand for his services to dilute the quality of his services. If the demand is greater than can be handled satisfactorily, the counselor informs the proper

administrative authority of his inability to provide adequate counseling services. Until additional services can be made available, he selects those in greatest need of counseling.

3. actively promotes the concept of counseling as a profession. He attempts to get others not to take counseling responsibility beyond their limitations.

4. enlists the coöperation and assistance of other staff workers and administrators in providing necessary supporting services for the counseling program of the school.

5. when necessary refers the counselee to appropriate persons or agencies and takes steps to make such referrals possible and to insure continuity in counseling.

6. as a staff member is a part of the school team, and accepts his share of general school duties. He resists those which interfere with his duties as counselor, either because of their incompatibility or because they make undue inroads on his time.

7. seeks employment only on the basis of his qualifications. He does not exploit his political or non-professional affiliations for this purpose.

8. continues to grow professionally.

9. maintains active coöperation with some professional group or groups.

10. continuously engages in research to contribute to his personal growth or to that of the profession. He plans such research so that the counselor-counselee relationships are not violated.

11. periodically evaluates his work and seeks the assistance of others who can help him improve the quality of his work.

## SUMMARY

The requirements of an efficient guidance worker can be approached through: (1) a study of the qualifications of present workers, (2) a summary of expert opinion as expressed in publications, and (3) an analysis of the tasks a guidance-worker is expected to complete.

A brief review of the qualifications of present workers clearly indicates that while definite advancement has been made in the training and qualifications of persons performing guidance duties, progress is still far short of what most experts would like it to be. A survey of the various tasks indicates that the efficient guidance worker should possess competencies in: (1) counseling techniques, (2) analysis of the individual, (3) occupational information, and (4) administrative relationships.

Various levels of counseling require different kinds and amounts of

skills. The amount and kinds of competencies that each guidance worker should possess depend upon the duties that he is to perform. The highly skilled specialist should be competent in all areas; the teacher-counselor is usually in the process of becoming a skilled specialist; while the classroom teacher has had some guidance training but most of it is directed to instruction. If the guidance philosophy permeates the faculty some teachers will demonstrate more guidance skills than others. The efficient elementary school guidance worker should possess the same competencies in counseling, individual analysis, and administrative relationships as do other public school guidance workers, but he does not need all of the vocational data demanded of his colleagues serving at the secondary school level.

The personal qualifications of a prospective and practicing counselor can be placed in four groups: scholastic aptitude, interests, activities, and personality factors. Any one of these groups may not provide sufficient evidence for selection, but a combination of all four should indicate a pattern of interest in and an ability to work with people.

Seven "core" fields of information and techniques should be required at the graduate level of the professional school counselor. These fields are: (1) philosophy and principles of guidance and counseling, (2) growth and development of the individual, (3) the learning process, (4) techniques for studying the individual, (5) techniques of collecting and using occupational and educational information, (6) techniques used in counseling, and (7) administrative and community relationships. It is also generally agreed that the guidance worker in training should have some supervised practice in personnel duties. Methods of providing supervised practice may range from laboratory demonstrations in course work to extended assignments in a field situation.

All authorities in guidance recognize the value of establishing certification requirements for the professional worker. However, 50 percent of the states have not as yet required specialized training for a school counselor. Because so many of our current guidance workers are inadequately trained for effectively performing their duties, and because teachers need training in guidance techniques to perform their role, an in-service training program is essential. The need for in-service training is further magnified when it is generally agreed that the burden of guidance tasks will be carried on by teachers rather than by professionally trained counselors.

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the necessity has become readily apparent for such an appointment. With every teacher assuming responsibility for the success of the program, guidance will then become a part of the general life of the school.

We prefer the second approach. In other words, a relatively long period of experiences with specific guidance situations should precede classification and organization. Out of these experiences and problems a group of specific guidance activities should develop. It is by relating and organizing these specific activities that they become most significant. Yet neither the establishment of a point of view nor the organization of a guidance program will occur without an interested and dynamic leadership.

## A DEMOCRATIC APPROACH IS ESSENTIAL

The successful inauguration of a guidance program requires a genuine understanding by administrators and teachers of the meaning of American democracy. True democracy in administration, for example, requires a recognition of the basic principle that "those who are governed must have a voice in their government." The organization of a guidance program should, therefore, proceed through coöperative planning in a group relationship created in a permissive atmosphere in which teachers, parents, and pupils feel free to express themselves. Those who have had an opportunity to help shape policy and procedure will feel a responsibility for successfully carrying out such a policy and procedure.

Without excluding the necessity of leadership, the key to democratic administration in operation is "participation"—of teachers, pupils, parents, and administrators. This assumes that all people concerned with activating the guidance program, teachers for example, should have a voice in the selection of a leader, in the choice of procedures, or in the assembling of materials.

## WHO SHALL PROVIDE THE LEADERSHIP?

Primary leadership must always originate from the administrative staff; nevertheless, it may immediately be delegated to a coördinator, committee, counselor, or teacher. The final plan of organization will emerge from the conditions peculiar to the individual school and the community. The plan will be influenced, too, by the degree to which leadership demonstrates unusual understanding, patience, sympathy, and diplomacy in dealing with the various situations such as long-established customs and special privileges.

The guidance program should arise out of the interests, needs, and purposes of the students and should harmonize with the objectives and functions of the school's total educational program. It must be concerned with the adjustment of the whole individual in his total environment with an emphasis on the prevention rather than treatment of problems. All agencies of the school and the community concerned with the guidance of children should be coördinated through the guidance program. A consideration of these illustrative basic principles demands a kind of "mass participation," yet not at the expense of a dynamic, intelligent leadership.

## How Shall We Begin?

In seeking an answer to the question, How shall we begin?, let us first examine the numerous published accounts of how successful guidance programs have been initiated, organized, and operated. From these we can then derive certain basic conclusions. Notwithstanding the difficulty of choosing illustrations, the writers hope the following examples will represent typical small schools, counties, and school districts.

### A Junior High School (6)

At Glencoe the adviser, who is also a classroom teacher, is the key person in the school guidance program. An extra period of an hour each day is given to each adviser for the first two weeks for him to get acquainted with the children. This time is obtained by postponing special courses such as art, shop, and music. At the beginning of the year for two or three weeks both the art teachers and the adviser can use the time in guidance. Out of staff study, discussion, and experimentation the following techniques were adopted and are now operating:

The entire staff of seventh- and eighth-grade teachers, all counselors, the principal, and superintendent attend weekly meetings. At this time all data on each child are reviewed. Common individual needs are noted and in the student's program a period each day is set aside for *special needs*. For children who require additional help in skills there are classes in arithmetic, remedial reading, spelling, muscular coördination, penmanship, and grammar. For students who need the challenge of advanced work or an opportunity to develop talents there are instrumental music groups, advanced science, typing, French, public speaking, and school service.

School service opportunities are offered by experiences such as: librarian assistant, primary school student teacher, primary workshop foreman, visual-aid assistant, office helper, nurse's aid, gymnasium helper, art studio worker, and assistant to the principal.

Except in the study of French and typing (both necessitating continued instruction) children can be reclassified for special needs every nine weeks or oftener as required in individual cases. This special period is possible because all seventh- and eighth-grade teachers and a few counselors are free to work on it together.

Records are kept so that children can see their own gains. The advisers have conferences to assist the child to select the class he needs most. At the close of the third week a letter is sent to the parents to explain the child-study program and to list the special activities their child will take. Parents have an opportunity to comment on the decisions regarding their child. Later, at "grade teas" or evening meetings the program is explained in greater detail and questions are answered. At individual parent conferences the teachers share facts learned about the child. Parents are often surprised to learn of new interests, abilities, or needs of their children.

Group guidance is a significant part of this program. For example, groups of children meet once every week or two during the physical education period for the purpose of discussing their own problems. Meetings are planned and conducted by children and teachers through a system of pre-planning committees which meet with a staff member to discuss choice of subject, possible resources, and method of discussion. Some of the topics considered are: how to act at dancing school, crushes of the seventh-grade girls, how to make more friends, growing up physically, bedtime hour, homework, boy-girl relationships, how to

give good parties, grades and tests, movie conduct, good sportsmanship, and improving personality.

Before discussions on sex education, parents are invited to preview the films used and to share their opinions with the staff. Other resources such as teachers from the lower grades, administrators, custodians, specialists, parents, businessmen and women, ministers, and doctors are used to help children solve their problems. Students and faculty from high school visit the school each year. They talk on such subjects as "Getting along as a Freshman," or "How to Make Friends," or "Clubs and Other Activities." The senior high school deans consult with each adviser. Children, parents, and teachers, share in constructive criticism. Teacher-student interviews are held before report cards go home each quarter; these interviews may be followed by teacher-parent consultations or teacher-parent-child conferences.

### A Junior High School (2)

The guidance program in Colin Kelly Junior High School is based upon this general philosophy: to help youth see beyond their own needs to their responsibilities to others; to help them see that only as they are able to live coöperatively and democratically are they able to realize their own personal destiny; and to help them see that only as they contribute to the best of their ability to things greater than themselves and to other individuals do they achieve happiness and success for themselves.

Guidance is defined as the process of assisting the individual to determine, analyze, and understand his interest, aptitudes, abilities, limitations, opportunities, problems, and needs and, in terms of this knowledge, to make wise choices and adjustments in order that he may serve society and live more happily. It is a functioning part of the total school program rather than a separate service divorced from the curriculum.

The principal, who is responsible for developing a guidance program to meet the needs of the students, is in direct charge of the total guidance program. The vice-principal also has a direct role to play. He is in charge of the attendance procedure for the school and the necessary pupil accounting. In collaboration with the attendance officer and school nurse he collects much information on home conditions and personal problems. He also serves as boys' adviser, handling cases of boys re-

ferred by teachers for special counseling. In instances where dismissal from school seems advisable the principal makes the final decision and conveys it to the student and parent. The vice-principal also assists in certain areas of scheduling and adjusts schedules readily throughout the year when deemed beneficial to the student.

Because of her training and background the librarian also functions as girls' adviser. She supervises cases of girls referred for special counseling by other teachers, the principal, or vice-principal. Her contact with all the students through the library gives her an opportunity to discover students with special problems. She administers the general intelligence test to any new student for whom no test record is available. She makes home-visits frequently and as librarian she assists the "core" teachers in securing vocational and educational information for students. She works with all the teachers in providing orientation and training for students on the proper use of the library.

The center of the guidance organization is found in the "core" curriculum. The "core" was developed through an integration of language arts, social studies, and science concepts. Emphasis is on social living in which curriculum content is focused on the student and his basic needs. In the seventh and eighth grades, the "core" consists of three periods of fifty minutes each, while, in the ninth grade, it is two periods. Some of the activities and clubs, such as 4-H, Rose Club, Landscaping Club, and Forestry, are developed in the "core" organization. Each home-room group whose activities originate in this curriculum has a complete organization with representation in the student council and the various school organizations. In the fall, two weeks are spent on an orientation program that emphasizes the relationship of the individual student to the school. The student handbook provides a basis for the study.

Each spring the principal and student leaders visit the various elementary schools to discuss with prospective students the junior high school program and to register them. These groups then visit the school and are entertained by the Girls' League and Boys' Club. Newcomers are oriented by an "Hello Week," a special assembly, and an all-school party in addition to the orientation engaged in through social living classes.

Cumulative folders begun in the first grade are kept in the classrooms of the "core" curriculum groups. Tests are administered and evaluated by the "core" teachers with the assistance of the principal and advisers,

and these teachers counsel individually with students when their classes are scheduled in the library, during free periods, or at non-school hours. Individual conference rooms are available adjoining each "core" curriculum room. All the areas of counseling, including educational, vocational, and personal, are carried on by the "core" teachers in addition to group guidance activities.

Home contacts are made either through inviting the parent to visit school or by home-visits by the teacher. These contacts are scheduled during free periods, after school, or on Saturdays.

All teachers have general responsibilities in making a contribution to the guidance program: the physical education and health teachers carry the responsibility of health guidance and social hygiene education; the homemaking teacher makes a special contribution to the guidance program in teaching units on home and family relations; the school nurse works closely with the boys' and girls' advisers and the principal on health problems.

A significant part of the guidance program lies in the area of special services. One of the social living (core) teachers is a reading specialist who works closely with the reading clinician for the school system. One period a day, the activity period, is set aside for remedial reading classes. Reading problems are diagnosed through teacher observation, and through the use of an achievement test administered every year to all students. These students with reading problems are scheduled in the remedial reading groups where they receive instruction. A speech teacher is available once a week to aid students with speech disabilities. These are referred by any teacher for examination, and corrective work is assigned when necessary. A school psychologist is available to study special cases and make recommendations for handling.

Social living (core) teachers have at least two conferences with each student during the year. The purposes of these conferences are: (1) to assist students to interpret data such as test scores, grades, personal records, (2) to assist them in identifying their major educational, vocational, and personal problems, (3) to assist them in planning a solution to their problems, and (4) to help them in carrying out these plans and to make modifications whenever necessary. In addition to the general counseling by social living (core) teachers, the boys' adviser, girls' adviser, and principal are constantly engaged in counseling. In attempting to help individuals, every teacher in school is alerted and assists in whatever way possible. The writers believe that adolescent

pupils have particular needs in the areas of physical health, emotional and mental health, satisfactory sex attitudes, vocational growth, recreation, and especially in developing a philosophy of life satisfying to themselves and society.

A cumulative record folder, started in the first grade or whenever the individual enters the school system, is used extensively. The records come to the school in the spring when school is out. The boys' adviser and girls' adviser go through them briefly before the beginning of school in the fall in order to discover any information that is important in schedule adjustment. The folders progress with the student throughout junior high school and into senior high school. Included in the record is a personal history completed by each student, containing likes and dislikes, family relationships, and so on. This serves as a basis for one of the first interviews with a student. Whenever an adviser has a conference with a student in which important information is revealed, this is recorded and filed in the folder. Referral cards are provided each teacher so that he may record important information that needs to be referred to the counselor. After a conference on the basis of the referral, the counselor makes a notation on the card and files it in a folder. A general intelligence test is given at the beginning of the seventh grade. This test is also given to all new students for whom no records are available. A personality inventory is given in the eighth grade and an interest inventory test is given as part of the study of vocations in the ninth grade. All of these instruments are scored and recorded in the students' permanent records and the analysis sheet filed in the cumulative folders. Scores on the achievement and personality tests are discussed in the general faculty meeting and scores made available to all teachers. Remedial measures are planned as a result of these discussions. Test scores also serve as a basis for personal counseling and adjustment.

In addition to the cumulative record folder a permanent record is kept in the office. Data found here are course grades, activity records and achievements, test records, personal and family statistics, statement of health and physical defects, attendance record, comment on personality characteristics, and a photograph of the student.

Occupational information is provided by an occupations unit in the ninth grade which requires nearly a third of a year. In addition to a study of our economic system, each student makes an intensive study of the two or three occupations in which he is especially interested and

makes a report of this to his class. He has interviews with people in the occupation, and, if it can be arranged, spends a day or so working with that person. People representing various occupations are brought into the classrooms to discuss their particular occupation. Many field excursions are taken to visit railroad shops, lumber mills, and so on. Each student is counseled in terms of the results of his interest test.

A limited number of students are offered work experiences, e.g., office work, physical education, librarianship, saleswork, food handling. Abundant material on occupations is always available in a certain part of the library and in the classrooms. At the end of the study of vocations, the counselors from the senior high school come to the school and spend two or three days counseling with students concerning their senior high school program and tentative schedules are made.

Special vocational units are studied as the interest arises. For instance, in the seventh grade, units on forestry, agriculture, and fishing are studied. Air age units in the eighth grade and a study of government in the making, science, and mathematics are a part of the junior high school program. The activity and club program which includes 4-H, Landscaping, Rose Club, Forestry, Cooking, Photography, Drama, and School Newspaper among others, have vocational implications.

Part-time jobs are occasionally secured when it seems necessary for economic or adjustment reasons. An attempt to maintain contact with all those leaving school, both graduates and dropouts, is encouraged. Since most of the students have gone on to senior high school where a fine guidance program is in operation, it is the dropouts whom the schools are in a better position to serve. All students who are leaving school at promotion time or who are dropping out are informed that the school's services are always available to them.

A survey made through the students and the guidance departments of the senior high schools is part of the follow-up service. In addition to checking on general achievement, attempts are made to discover how well the pupils are developing in basic personality traits and responding to responsibility. The survey supplies information that is used as a basis for improving the educational program and the guidance services.

### A Six-Year Rural High School (12)

In the Fillmore Union High School a policy-forming group known as the guidance committee forms the administrative core of the guidance program. The committee is comprised of ten faculty members who give

extra-curricular time to their work. One of the group serves as coördinator. Vacancies are filled by the superintendent.

The guidance program was initiated through a study of the needs of the students and the formulation of a second group of teachers to act as a curriculum committee. The first year's work of the committees was to formulate plans and recommendations. At present there are six counselors whose average student load is approximately 125. The number varies between 140 seventh graders to 75 seniors. Each counselor is responsible for one of the six classes.

The seventh- and eighth-grade counselors are constant, allowing the other counselors to start with a class in the ninth grade and remain with them through graduation. One period per day is allotted for coördinating. The students' cumulative record folders contain all permanent data.

Any time a student has a conference with an administrator, counselor, or teacher, the cause, informational data, and disposition as well as the student's attitudes are noted on a conference report. The counselor reviews the report as it clears through the vice-principal's office. Counselor action may be facilitated by these reports.

Personality evaluations are made of the maladjusted students from the teachers' rating on personality, attitudes, and drives. From these ratings a composite is made which contributes current information to the general case history. Counselors find their own anecdotal records of interviews, conference reports, talks with teachers and observations to be of utmost value. The counselor's record also includes testing and other pertinent information.

The local Rotary Club established the vocational library by securing a complete set of career monographs. Supplementing these monographs are the materials published by the Science Research Associates which includes a current bibliography of free vocational materials. These materials, along with all the vocational library books, have been located in a separate section of the school library for both group and individual use.

One day each year the entire high school program centers about the investigation of vocations. Some thirty lay speakers, men successful in fields from medicine to small business operation, donate their time and share experiences with the students. Student approval has been overwhelming.

Attempts are made to bridge the gap between high school depend-

ence and independent adult citizenship. Freshman orientation attempts to develop awareness of the personal and educational opportunities available in high school.

The guidance committee meets monthly and acts as the directing and policy-forming group. Plans are made to study specific guidance services; e.g., plans were formulated to offer tests that would develop not only practical results for teachers and committees, but results which would also be available through counselor interpretation to each individual student.

In this school there has also been established a school-guidance clinic composed of a psychologist, nurse, counselor, teacher, and administrator. By pooling their information about one individual, this group undoubtedly can determine a wiser solution to the maladjustment problem than can a counselor analyzing the situation alone.

## A Countrywide Guidance Program (18)

Nine small schools of an Iowa County were chosen as the center for initiating a guidance program. The project began with the administration of a battery of tests which had been coöperatively selected. The only cost to the schools for the service was the cost of test materials plus the clerical expense of scoring the papers, tabulating and making the reports necessary for interpreting the results. The tests used for the respective areas included the American Council Psychological Examination for High School Students (1946 Edition); Iowa Silent Reading Tests, New Edition, Advanced Test, Revised; Iowa High School Content Examination; California Test of Personality-Secondary; and Kuder Preference Record (Vocational). Preliminary to the administration of the tests, the purpose of the tests, and the use to be made of the results were carefully and fully explained to the groups. Furthermore, it was pointed out that each pupil would receive a profile showing his performance on each test and that the scores would be discussed and explained in detail.

After the test papers were scored on the IBM test-scoring machine, an individual profile and a duplicate for the school, was made for each pupil. Class-norms for each grade were computed and they became a part of the school's permanent record.

In each school a group conference was held in which the profile in general was explained. The explanation was based on the following questions: (1) How can I interpret the scores on my profile and thereby

better understand my strengths and my limitations? (2) How can a proper interpretation of my profile help in planning my future success as well as aid in a more confident social and vocational adjustment?

In the group conferences each pupil was urged to bring any questions or problems to an individual interview which was arranged for him. Of those pupils who brought problems most were concerned with vocational choice. Members of the faculties were urged to observe the program, particularly the group conferences, administration of tests, explanation of profile charts and so on. Periods for group meetings with teachers were scheduled in each school at which the teacher's role in the guidance program was discussed. A summary of the topics of discussion included the following:

1. Some common problems in guidance.
2. The individual inventory and pupil records.
3. Occupational information.
4. Tests in the guidance program:
   When to test, what tests to use, selection and administration of tests, what to do with the test results.
5. The teacher's role in the guidance program.
6. Steps in organizing a guidance program.

### A County School System [1]

The State Director of Guidance Services of the State Department of Public Instruction initiated interest in guidance in the public schools by personal conferences with the county school superintendent, supervisors of instruction, and attendance officer. This resulted in the organization of three groups: (1) advisory group, (2) service group, and (3) working group. The advisory group consisted of the board of education, the county superintendent, the elementary supervisor, the senior high school principal, the junior high school principals, and the elementary school principals. The service group consisted of the county school doctor and nurse, social and welfare workers, youth bureau,

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[1] This account is a modification of mimeographed material describing the guidance program in Weber County Schools, Ogden, Utah, 1950–1951, which was initiated under the leadership of Dr. Vernon F. Larson, former Director of Guidance Services of the State Department of Public Instruction, Salt Lake City, Utah. One of the authors participated as a consultant in the program for two years and has drawn considerably from this experience in writing this description.

juvenile court, rehabilitation, county parent-teachers association, county sheriff department, civic clubs, and colleges.

The working group consisted of the county guidance committee and was composed of: the county director of guidance, senior high school boys' counselor, senior high school girls' counselor, elementary principals, and one teacher each from the senior high school, the junior high school, the upper elementary and the primary grades, and a county parent-teacher association representative.

The guidance committee planned a year's program of in-service training for all school personnel in the district. Three general divisions were organized: (1) elementary, (2) junior high school, and (3) senior high school. Every teacher in the county was enrolled in the project and a consultant from the University of Utah and the Utah State Agricultural College, was chosen for each group. Once every two weeks the consultant met with his group and the alternating week was spent in school staff meetings to consider the problem of guidance as it applied to a particular school.

Study committees were formed in each group. For example, the study committees organized for guidance work at the elementary level considered the following phases of guidance: (1) counseling, (2) parent-teacher conferences, (3) testing, (4) collecting and recording data, (5) filing and interpreting data.

At the end of the year the entire county school staff met in a half-day session to hear reports and recommendations. Emerging from this year's experience and study, a guidance program was formulated and adopted. The final report contained the following basic divisions: philosophy of a guidance program, needs for guidance services, an adequate guidance program for Weber County District, functions of the superintendent, the supervisors, the guidance committee, the district coördinator, the principal, the vice-principal, the guidance committee within the school, the counselor, the teachers, and immediate steps. The immediate steps and recommendations were:

1. Present the district guidance program to the board of education for approval or alteration.
2. Make announcements as to proposed courses on guidance offered at each of the universities. Encourage individual study.
3. Organize and appoint a District Guidance Committee.
4. Make plans for the "Fall Guidance Workshop" to be held annually.

5. Formulate plans for in-service training of all faculties within the district.
6. Formulate and initiate plans developing a student and parent understanding of the program.
7. Separate attendance discipline and counseling roles in all the secondary schools of the district.
8. Prepare to launch a needed testing program.
9. Prepare a professional library of guidance materials.
10. Progressively carry forward the total guidance program through the united effort of administration, principals, guidance personnel, teachers, parents, and students.

For the second year the guidance committe launched an in-service program of one specific phase of the guidance program, i.e., the parent-teacher conference. The same plan of study and consultation services were planned and initiated.

For the third year it is planned to continue study of the testing or evaluation phase of the guidance program.

## Orange County, California (3)

In Orange County the office of the county superintendent of schools is staffed with specialists who provide guidance services, and maintain special classes for handicapped children. The services of these guidance specialists complement teachers' activities, and upon request will go as a team to assist with classroom problems.

Teacher and specialist study the child's anecdotal, attendance, health, and school records; compile his biography; observe his conduct; make home visits and hold conferences with his parents; employ projective, sociometric, and role-playing techniques; and administer tests of achievement, aptitudes, and interests. From these data the teacher gains insight into the particular kinds of experiences that the child needs. In some instances the child is tested and interviewed outside the school, often at the child guidance center conducted by the county superintendent of schools.

In Orange County guidance is gradually being recognized as a service for all children. Teachers are encouraged to enroll in college courses and to participate in workshops and institutes. In addition, area meetings are often arranged between administrators of elementary and secondary schools so that activities may be planned to articulate instruction between the two levels and to orient students as they progress from the elementary to the secondary level.

THE CHILD GUIDANCE CENTER

A team of specialists in the office of the county superintendent of schools operate a child guidance center, that is available to all children in the county who need special help. The staff of the guidance center includes a director, two psychologists, two medical doctors, a child welfare and attendance worker, audiometrist, a nursing consultant, and a speech consultant. The center accepts children referred to it by private and public agencies as well as by schools. It maintains an official consulting relationship with the juvenile division of the probation department.

TECHNIQUES FOR STUDYING CHILDREN

Schools often seek help from the county superintendent of schools in the use of various techniques for studying individuals and groups. Demonstrations and information pertaining to sociometric procedure and assistance in the administering of achievement and intelligence tests are given through the superintendent's office. A psychologist and a curriculum consultant frequently work together in the presentation of county-wide institutes or district meetings concerning these methods.

In Orange County sociometry has been found to be one of the most useful techniques to help teachers study the child as an individual and as a member of a group. The results of observation alone are generally inaccurate in determining a child's true relationships in the classroom. Teachers are also using sociodrama successfully in schools in Orange County. What the children say or neglect to say and how they respond gives direct or indirect indications of their fears, conflicts, and maladjustments. The teacher's insight into the subtleties of human relations is keener, and as girls and boys feel more and more free to express their real thoughts to an acceptive adult, the working relationships between the class and the teacher are considerably strengthened.

and reading achievement tests in the primary grades; (2) battery achievement tests in grades four through eight; (3) intelligence tests, usually in grades two or three, five, and seven; and (4) intelligence and battery achievement tests for eighth-grade pupils prior to entrance into high school. Summary reports are prepared in standardized form and include the scores made by each class, giving a percentile distribution of raw scores, the IQ's, and grade placement scores. These summaries are presented in graphic manner to each school at the end of the year. This makes them available to the persons responsible for planning the children's programs for the next year. Names of pupils scoring below 75 IQ on the group intelligence tests are referred to the psychologist to consider whether they should be assigned to a special training class.

Each school is given a three-ring binder, called the "T-book" in which the summary test reports are kept. From time to time special inserts concerned with test usage or interpretation are prepared by the office of the county superintendent of schools for distribution to schools. Discussions of testing and interpretation of test results are conducted at committee meetings of teachers.

### CHILD WELFARE AND ATTENDANCE

The child welfare and attendance supervisors on the staff of the county superintendent extend their services at the request of the school district after it has exhausted its own resources for reaching satisfactory solutions to each attendance problem. Schools requesting this assistance provide such data as the child's name and address, a brief review of the problem, and the steps that the school has taken to remedy the situation.

### HEALTH SERVICES

Health services are available to all the schools in the county. To provide this service there are available two full-time school physicians, a consultant in nursing services, an audiometrist, and a part-time dental hygienist. At present there are 40 school nurses employed by 30 school districts in the county. Two of these nurses contract with several small districts, through the agency of the county superintendent of schools. Each nurse is health consultant in the district in which she is employed, and with the administrator of the district she plans the school health program. A consultant in school nursing from the office of the county superintendent meets with the group of school nurses and the school physicians several times each year to discuss school health policies. Dur-

ing each school year, institutes are planned for nurses, and meetings on health are sponsored by nurses for teachers and administrators.

The State Crippled Children's Service operates through the Orange County Health Department's clinic. The audiometrist from the staff of the county superintendent of schools is the coördinator between the school districts and the clinic. Each year ten clinics are held, meeting monthly in a doctor's office.

Case histories are prepared by school nurses to be considered in a clinic attended by the audiometrist, and by a public health nurse. The nurse confers with parents for follow-up care, and the audiometrist confers with the doctor and parents on the educational needs of the child and the facilities for meeting them. Recommendations made by the clinic or by the family health adviser who examines the child are sent to the school nurse.

Twelve school districts in the county contract with the superintendent's office for regular assistance in speech training. One consultant works two days a week with certain school districts and spends the other three days coördinating the program of services throughout the county. She is available on request to districts that have no speech consultant.

The school district in which the child resides contracts for special education of the physically handicapped child. Special classes are held for those who are deaf, partially-seeing, and cerebral palsied. The role of the county superintendent of schools is largely that of case finding and coördination between the district of residence and the school district maintaining the special classes. Annual reports on the progress of each child are sent to the district of residence of each child. Eight teachers give instruction to the physically handicapped and ill children who are unable to attend school.

1. Recognition of need for a better program.
2. Series of preliminary, exploratory meetings. The administrator clears with school board and keeps them informed.
3. Pre-organization committee. Locate beginning possibilities. Information to the faculty.
4. Encouraging faculty participation.
5. The permanent guidance committee.

## A Recognition of Need for a Better Program

Teacher, parent, and the community should be aroused to the needs of children and youth and to a consideration of whether the school is meeting these needs. Special topics for study will include: (1) a consideration of the increase in juvenile delinquency, (2) the major causes of failure in the school—differences in judgment of teacher and clinician, (3) what are the imperative needs of youth, and (4) what is the school or/and community doing to meet the needs of youth? These topics are by no means all-inclusive but a consideration of any one of them will point toward the need for personal adjustment services for children and youth.

## Preliminary and Exploratory Meetings

Preliminary and exploratory meetings are general in character; that is, not specifically related to guidance services. Although the content of discussion at these meetings may not be directly related to the problem of organizing the guidance program, the need for organization may evolve. Discussion around topics described in the foregoing paragraph (recognition of need for a better program) may be illustrative of this point. In many cases it is best not to refer to the "needs for guidance" but rather to problems that disturb the teacher and interfere with teaching. When teachers begin to realize what the needs and problems of their students are and how inadequately they have been trained to assist, they will be more eager to have specifically trained personnel who can be given released teaching time for counseling.

Frequently preliminary and exploratory meetings will be in the form of informal talks with individual teachers and pupils. In these conferences the value of collecting more information about students is emphasized. Teachers soon develop positive attitudes toward help by contacting agencies and other sources of assistance in solving problems. Preliminary and exploratory meetings may conveniently lead to favorable results in

a survey of teacher opinion on the desirability of launching an organized guidance program.

## Pre-Organization Committees

Following a general orientation of guidance programs, a pre-organization committee, temporary in nature, can be appointed by the administrator. A usual method is to call for volunteers and from these a small number, not more than seven, can be selected. The types of activities ⌐¹ · · · ⸱ the committee for study will include a formulation of the ⸱⸱d purpose of guidance, a clarification of the objectives, a ⸱n of the general principles of guidance, and a statement of ⸱clusions and recommendations. One committee formulated ⸱g statements which were adopted by the entire staff as a step to organizing a permanent guidance program for the ⸱m (9).

### OUR PHILOSOPHY OF A GUIDANCE PROGRAM

The guidance program should be considered an organized service designed to give systematic aid to pupils (of all ages and levels) in making adjustments to educational, vocational, health, moral, social, civic, personal, and emotional problems. The guidance program consists of all the organized extra-instructional services within the total educational program which assist individuals in making wise choices, solving their problems, and improving their planning.

A guidance program recognizes that each pupil is an individual, not just a class member. It accepts each pupil as an independent personality. A guidance program necessitates arranging the school environment in the interests of the individual student. It makes necessary a systematic study of individuals who deviate from the average. A guidance program helps the individual student to understand himself and to modify his ways of adjusting. It helps each pupil learn to live as a coöperating member of a family and a community. It helps each pupil learn to make the best use of his physical equipment. It helps each pupil make a realistic choice of a career. The ultimate goal of all education is self guidance.

The need for guidance services as a part of the total program of education is apparent in view of the following basic assumptions:

## NEEDS FOR GUIDANCE SERVICES

Today it is difficult for youth to choose a vocation, prepare for it, and succeed in it because of the complex economic and social aspects of our society. Many responsibilities formerly assumed by church, home, and industry have been shifted to the schools. The demands society makes of youth are continually changing. The occupations are more and more specialized, and economic conditions are more and more challenging. All the children of all of the people are going to school. The curriculum is being expanded and varied. Schools whose sole curriculum was limited to college preparatory courses, even though few graduates ever went to college, are attempting to enrich their offerings with a more functional type of education.

The prospect for an indefinite period of severe military and production strain is ahead of us. Developments may require schools to view themselves not only as the means of handing down the culture of the race, and supplying an education adapted to the individual's needs, but also as a part of the planned manpower resources for industrial and military needs. The schools may be asked to accomplish this in a shorter period of time. This fact points to one of the first new tasks of the school: making an inventory as complete and meaningful as it can of every pupil enrolled in it and making every pupil aware of his own characteristics. The schools may be given the task of recommending those who can profit by college training and those who cannot; those who are to be atomic physicists, doctors, mechanics, nurses, teachers and those who are to be immediately added to the labor and military forces. . . .

The American school is changing to meet these varied challenges. We realize that educational objectives must be based on the discovered needs of individuals and are not the same for all. Objectives cannot be predetermined and superimposed by the school on whole groups of individuals. The school must help students understand themselves, work out their problems, and achieve reasonable adjustment. Activities devoted to these ends constitute a modern program of guidance.

In order to achieve an educational program built upon these basic assumptions, it is necessary for a school system to have (1) an adequate program of guidance services and, (2) well trained personnel.

### Faculty Participation

Practices most likely to remain as a permanent and effective part of the guidance program are those developed through the coöperation of the people who are to implement them in the program. The guidance program should place as much responsibility on staff members as is

consistent with their ability to assume it. Without early participation in the initial stages of organization and continuing throughout its administration, teachers are likely to resist proposals and recommendations. Success of a guidance program demands that most of the teachers understand the objectives; are interested in participating in the development of plans; and have opportunity to work on committees dealing with specific guidance services. Teachers should participate in the selection of a guidance director or a permanent guidance committee, as well as in the choice of procedures and selection of guidance materials. Only when all members of the staff are actively engaged in developing curricular materials and methods of teaching which will meet the individual needs of boys and girls can there be a successful guidance program.

## The Permanent Guidance Committee

The most commonly used and certainly the most successful method for initiating an organization of a guidance program is the committee system. Pre-organizational committees have been discussed in foregoing pages; we are now ready to discuss a permanent guidance committee. In the small school it may be desirable to appoint the pre-organization committee as the permanent committee, but in the large school a more inclusive and representative committee and subcommittees will be more satisfactory.

The permanent guidance committee can be formed by enlarging the temporary or pre-organizational committee. In some schools the permanent committee may consist entirely of newly-appointed members. Regardless of time of appointment, the permanent guidance committee may vary in size according to the enrollment of the school, but will seldom exceed six members. (It is desirable to have many faculty members involved in subcommittee work while the permanent committee may be very small.)

In practice, the chairman of the guidance committee usually becomes the executive in charge of the guidance program. The chairman of all subcommittees should be selected from the permanent committee. Other members of the subcommittee should be chosen from volunteers; however, a good guidance program will include the entire faculty, each member serving on at least one subcommittee. Common subcommittees are: individual inventory, testing program, occupational information, counseling, problems and needs, follow-up, placement.

The functions of the committee will include (5):

1. To initiate an in-service training program for the entire faculty.
2. To assemble resource materials and information for use by faculty advisers and teachers; such as occupational information, cumulative record forms, and testing instruments.
3. To procure resource facilities such as university personnel, welfare agencies, and psychological clinics.
4. To assist teachers with individual problem cases.
5. To integrate guidance activities with curriculum planning, extra-class activities, and community projects.
6. To assist home-room or "core" teachers in developing a group-guidance program.
7. To assist the administration by advising on organization, practices, and facilities.

The guidance committee should keep minutes and note decisions in order to leave a record for others to follow. It is one of the best features of small school guidance programs where tenure is short and continuity of effort is important.

## SPECIFIC ACTIVITIES IMPLEMENTING AN APPROACH TO ORGANIZATION

Specific activities which lead to the development of a guidance program are also suggested in the foregoing illustrations. There is no one best activity with which to begin, because the interests of administrators and the instructional staff will vary. Some of the specific activities suggested by the foregoing examples are: (1) in-service training of all personnel, (2) the use of surveys of pupil problems, pupil interests, parental opinion, strengths and weaknesses of present program, and vocational-community opportunities; (3) a study of guidance services rendered by the classroom teacher; (4) the case-study approach; (5) a study of tests and records; (6) a study of guidance tools; (7) a study of school dropouts and school graduates; and (8) a systematic study of guidance programs in other schools.

### In-Service Training of all Personnel

Although in-service training is discussed in chapter 17 we must emphasize that any in-service program must emerge as the result of group

expression and planning. The faculty must feel a need for learning, and opportunities must be provided to put new skills and techniques to immediate use.

In-service training may be initiated by a study of the role of the teacher as counselor. This will involve a study of child development, guidance techniques, mental hygiene, measurement, and evaluation. Each teacher will want to (1) increase his understanding of the emotional needs of youngsters, (2) his knowledge of the tools for diagnosing individuals, and (3) his skills in counseling and remedial techniques.

Reading and discussing professional guidance materials in groups can serve as an impetus to other projects. Because of the advantage of working under known leadership, and of rapport with others in the same field, extension courses and workshops offer valuable methods of in-service training. If planned and conducted as professional conferences, faculty meetings may be among the most effective methods of in-service teacher training. Professional literature on counseling may well be the basis for discussion for several meetings. Consideration of ideas and projects from other schools or institutions are also useful techniques for increasing the competency of teachers. Teachers' own conferences on counseling represent their personal interest and planning in this field. Practicing counseling has considerable value in itself. Teachers who are active in counseling, who compare problems, techniques and "cases," and who present these for discussion at faculty meetings grow professionally.

### SPECIFIC SUGGESTIONS FOR CONTINUING GROWTH IN-SERVICE

1. Encourage friendly conversations and cordial relationships among teachers, superintendent, supervisors, principals, and special guidance workers.
2. Have a guidance specialist work with the teacher on a specific individual or community problem.
3. Plan systematic conferences within schools or district for discussion of and instruction in guidance principles and procedures.
4. Provide demonstrations of interviews with parents and pupils and of work with class groups and clubs.
5. Visit clinics, welfare agencies, local employment offices, industries, and institutions of higher learning.
6. Build libraries of books, bulletins, handbooks, and other sources of information on guidance for teachers.

7. Participate on a community council or other organized special service to the community.
8. Plan an evaluation of the effect of in-service training. For example:
   (a) Were the interests and concerns of the teachers and administrators used as the beginning point for in-service growth?
   (b) Were particular interests and potentialities of the participating school personnel recognized and incorporated into the services being offered?
   (c) Was provision made for future growth and development of the program (including training opportunities and facilities)?

## The Use of Surveys

The survey can conveniently be considered as evaluation or research; participation in an evaluation of a research study stimulates members of the faculty to an awareness of the needs of their students as well as those needs they are serving well.[2] Instruments such as *The Mooney Problem Check List* or *The S.R.A. Youth Inventory* are useful to survey the entire student body for determining what are their most pressing personality problems. A committee organized for the purpose may devise a special questionnaire to survey student needs. A convenient form of questionnaire is a series of multiple-choice items such as:

"I would like to spend more time in our core curriculum to discuss:
   (a) job opportunities, (b) making friends, (c) vocational choice, (d) how to be well-groomed."

The social adjustment of students may also be studied by use of sociometric data. It may be valuable to use inventories constructed for specific purposes such as a vocational-interest inventory.[3]

A parent-opinion-and-interest survey can be used to obtain reactions from parents and school patrons about student needs in the community, the degree of the school's success in meeting these needs, and what the school might do by way of improvement. Data of this nature may be obtained by a combination of formal written questionnaires, informal talks, comments at P.T.A. meetings, contact with employers to provide information related to characteristics of job applicants.

A survey of the strengths and weaknesses of the entire school provides an excellent approach to an interest in a guidance program. Faculty, students, and parents can participate in such a survey in an attempt to locate and describe the present program of guidance services and to indicate

current needs. Emphasis should be placed on the positive approach in seeking the desirable characteristics of the school.

A research problem can provide an effective initiation for a guidance program. The following areas are some in which useful research may be done:

SCHOLASTIC PROBLEMS

1. Scholastic failures
2. Individual scholastic abilities and mental capacities
3. Under and over-achievers
4. Reading skills
5. Special skills (mechanical, musical, artistic, etc.)
6. Presence of exceptional children—physically handicapped

VOCATIONAL FACTORS

1. Occupational ambitions
2. Occupational aptitudes and interests
3. Occupational opportunities available locally and nationally
4. Training opportunities

COMMUNITY RESOURCES

1. Available placement opportunity
2. Socio-economic status of community
3. Referral agencies

CURRICULUM EFFECTIVENESS

1. Determination of general achievement of school population
2. Adequacy of and participation in co-curricular activities
3. Adequacy of curriculum in preparation for vocational aims and in meeting personal needs
4. Curriculum materials in educational literature

STAFF

1. Qualifications of school staff
   a. experience
   b. training
   c. interest in guidance work

GUIDANCE SERVICES

1. Present guidance activities now being carried on
2. Other guidance programs
3. Factors now handicapping development of guidance program

4. Guidance literature
5. Duties of counselors and determination of responsibilities to be assumed by various members of the staff in the guidance program
6. Student's evaluation of own needs and the adequacy with which they are being met

## *A Study of Guidance Services Rendered by the Classroom Teacher*

Either directly or indirectly the initial steps in organizing a guidance program should be related to the role of the classroom teacher. Every teacher should have a part in the guidance program; if the final organization operates as an isolated service quite independently of the total school program it will operate under extreme difficulties until its eventual failure. The teacher inevitably influences students' attitudes and development; with a little training he can aid in accomplishing the objectives of the entire guidance program. The teacher will be able to secure much information from the guidance staff from psychological test data, scholastic scores, home and social backgrounds, and interests of the student; the guidance staff, in turn, must rely on the teacher for most of the information regarding student aptitudes, shortcomings, interests, and personality traits.

The teacher will need help from specially trained guidance personnel to learn the techniques of recording pertinent facts about student interest, aptitudes, behavior patterns, goals, plans, and socio-economic status. A teacher who has a guidance point of view will want to provide a friendly classroom environment conducive to the fullest development of all students and to assisting students to develop abilities or compensate for handicaps.

## *The Case Study*

A most useful device for stimulating interest in the guidance program is the case conference (case study). This involves bringing together all persons concerned with a pupil, usually a pupil who is in trouble. Each person who has had any relationships whatever with the pupil contributes this information. Tests and records are examined and remedial efforts are planned.

The case-conference approach needs to be continued over a relatively long period of time with regular discussions directed to the more normal cases chosen by teachers. Emphasis should be placed on group discussion of the tools and techniques to be used in guidance of the normal child.

*A Study of Tests and Records*

The case-conference approach will lead directly to the problem of record keeping by teachers and other routine informational services. When information about a boy or girl in the teacher's class is needed he is eager to help. When issues arise on the system of transferring a pupil's guidance record from school to school and the kinds of record forms to be used, teachers are ready to coöperate in an organized guidance program.

Of the two types of basic records (1) the standard cumulative record, and (2) the journal record, the teacher will doubtless be more interested in the journal record. The journal record is a kind of folder in which are kept samples of the pupil's school work, anecdotal records, records of interviews, ratings, inventories, and so on. The journal record is cumulative; however, the teacher or counselor will find there a much more detailed account of pupils in specific and diverse situations. Characteristics may be obscured unless, through repeated recordings, the same general pattern emerges continuously. While the cumulative record contains all the pertinent data about the child over a period of years, most of the data appear in an abbreviated form and need to be supplemented.

The data for all records is neither complete nor accurate without the coöperation of the classroom teacher. A study of the techniques of recording observations and interpreting test data will generally stimulate the teacher's interest in a guidance program.

departments are frequent outside speakers. Students from schools having guidance programs should not be overlooked as valuable resource people.

## A Study of School Drop-outs and Graduates

Most teachers are interested in what happens to students who leave the school either before or after graduation. Follow-up studies should be made to determine the successes or failures of students who enroll in institutions of higher learning as well as those who enter home making or gainful occupations. Initial studies may be superficial but they stimulate interest in what will eventually develop into one of the most significant of guidance services. Follow-up studies in the guidance program will involve methods and techniques for:

1. Securing, assembling, and recording pertinent data about students and high school-leavers.
2. Assisting high school-leavers with problems of employment, college attendance, or in establishing home-membership.
3. Counseling students and school-leavers about their plans and needed adjustments.
4. Appraising the guidance and counseling program by the use of statistical or other pertinent data.

Studies involving these techniques are essential to any consideration of curriculum revision or school evaluation. This approach helps to initiate the organization of a guidance program because it is so closely related to the phases of school improvement.

### SUMMARY

Without a vigorous and well-trained leadership the guidance phase of the educational profession may remain unrecognized. Two approaches may be used in providing this leadership—the one is to employ a qualified leader, and the second is to develop leadership within the faculty through in-service training. The second approach is more likely, being more democratic, to receive full support from the instructional staff.

Specific activities which lead to the development of a guidance program were illustrated in this chapter by several examples of guidance organizational patterns in junior high school, senior high school, and counties. A summary of organizational steps is as follows:

1. *Start with the classroom teacher*

   Workshops, study groups, special courses, and organized and well-planned faculty meetings are all useful devices for assisting the classroom teacher in his attempt to understand the guidance program and the role of the teacher in it.

2. *Define and delegate guidance responsibilities*

   Some schools have chosen to delegate guidance responsibilities to a guidance committee. Ordinarily, however, one person who is mature, sympathetic, and especially trained should administer the guidance program. A policy forming committee representing the entire faculty can do much to assist the leader.

3. *Place someone in charge of the guidance program*

   If it is impossible to employ someone already trained in guidance, an interested and capable staff member may be chosen. He should be encouraged to seek further training.

4. *Stimulate interest by in-service training*

   When an in-service program is planned by the group and built around concrete problems, it is a useful medium for initiating interest in guidance. Opportunities should be provided for training in gathering, assembling, and interpreting data about students. These data can be used in studying techniques of counseling, in surveys, or in research.

5. *Build student-parent understanding and appreciation of the guidance program*

   Many of the techniques described in this textbook can be used to accomplish this objective; e.g., vocational-community surveys, assembly presentations, motion pictures, homeroom discussions, printed materials, career days, etc.

6. *Evaluate the program continuously*

   The current program should be studied in light of more complete or ideal guidance services.

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PART II

# TECHNIQUES FOR UNDERSTANDING THE INDIVIDUAL

# CHAPTER 5

# *Gaining Information About the Student*

## PURPOSE OF INFORMATION

SINCE the beginning of the measurement movement, where great emphasis was placed on individual differences, the gathering of information about the student has been a vital consideration in attempts to meet individual needs. So important is a wide range of information concerning each pupil that any real or significant guidance cannot be given without it. "To attempt to guide the development of the pupil without an intimate knowledge of his background and the sum total of his experiences is to attempt the impossible" *(14)*. The efficiency of the entire educational program depends upon an adequate understanding of the student.

For daily classroom use teachers need information about the pupil; otherwise the pupil cannot be recognized as an individual. That appropriate and meaningful learning experiences can be chosen, modern education emphasizes the importance of knowing the level of growth and development of each child. This is not possible without data of intellectual, physical, social, and emotional status. Counseling, one of the most significant of the guidance services, is also dependent upon information concerning: (1) the characteristics and potentialities of the student; and (2) the influences and resources of school, home, and community in which the student's problems arise and in which he must make his adjustments.

The school staff needs information about the student if conferences

with parents are to be productive. Through accurate interpretation of knowledge gained about the student both teacher and parent may get a better understanding of the school program and its affects on children. Furthermore, parents may be given assistance in providing a home environment compatible and conducive to desirable education. The curriculum should constantly be evaluated and improved according to information indicative of the extent that the school's objectives are being accomplished. Only through a systematic program for collecting data can an adequate evaluation be conducted.

In studying the individual all information gained should be directly related to the growth and development of the child; thus, it becomes necessary for those concerned with guidance to have a basic understanding of the principles of growth and development. Maximum growth and adjustment of each individual pupil should be the aim of any effective guidance program. The focus will then be upon need.

We may list eight imperative needs of youth illustrative of conclusions reached by faculty study groups:

1. Ethical and moral living; independence of action; emancipation from parents; normal relationships with the opposite sex.

    All youth need to develop insight into ethical values and principles and to be able to live a moral life.

2. Citizenship: a satisfying place among fellow men; status with age group; social and civic competency.

    All youth need to understand the rights and duties of the citizen of a democratic society, and to be diligent and competent as a member of their communities, state, and nation.

3. Home and family life; wholesome relationships with the opposite sex; marriage, home, and family-life orientation.

    All youth need to appreciate the significance of family life and possess the desires and knowledge to become worthy family members.

4. Self-realization and use of leisure; personal achievement; achievement of emotional security.

    All youth need to have some degree of success and know how to budget and use their leisure time wisely.

5. Health:

    All youth need to develop and maintain good health and physical fitness.

6. Consumer education:

    All youth need to know how to purchase and use goods and services intelligently.

7. Tools of learning:

All youth need to have a command of the tools of learning such as reading, listening, thinking, or expressing thoughts clearly.

8. Work experience; occupational adjustment and competencies; appropriate vocational goals.

All youth need to acquire those understandings, attitudes, and skills which will make them intelligent and productive participants in economic life.

If the guidance program is to meet these needs of youth and help them to complete each developmental task successfully, it becomes tremendously important to understand the human growth process.

## MEASURING GROWTH

One method for determining the growth of the individual is to conduct surveys to determine group norms. The traditional method has been described as the "cross-sectional" approach in which the averages of large groups of children have been obtained. For example, if it seems desirable to get a picture of achievement in arithmetical skills the usual procedure is to give tests to all students in all grades in the school. The average of each grade group is then calculated and this used as the "normal" achievement in that grade. Obviously, it is impossible to include all children, thus a "representative sampling" of children at successive age or grade levels are selected for testing. From studies of this kind such generalizations as we now have concerning behavior and development have been determined. It is possible, for example, to obtain height norms, achievement norms, and intelligence norms and to compare a child's status with the average.

The use of a norm to compare the various aspects of the child's development with other members of his class, school, or age group has certain advantages. In the first place, the best standard method available for evaluating the extent of a child's development is the use of a norm group. Secondly, the norm group can be constantly validated by selecting new samples from the various age or grade levels. The ease with which considerable growth data can be accumulated over a relatively short period of time is a third advantage of this method.

The limitations of the "cross-sectional" approach are, however, being recognized by guidance specialists. For example, achievement and personality norms very frequently ignore sex differences. Furthermore, it is

difficult to select "representative samplings." Even if representative samplings were possible individual growth patterns are so unique that expectancy standards for even a majority of individuals within the group cannot be measured in terms of the average. In each case it is dangerous to make a generalization regarding any difference between an individual child's score and the norm.

Extensive growth studies conducted during the past several years clearly indicate that each child's development is unique and should be interpreted in terms of his own tempo of growth, rather than with reference to norms based upon mass data from groups of children. It is necessary, therefore, that longitudinal growth data be collected on each student over a period of time. The natural individual growth patterns may then be substituted for the mass methods now being used. Much of these data can be obtained from permanent cumulative records started when the child first enters school. Longitudinal data permit us to study growth in terms of emphasis upon the interrelationship and development of all the traits. The study of pupils by the longitudinal method places great significance upon the collecting of information.

## BASIC GROWTH CONCEPTS AND GUIDANCE

From the guidance point of view growth is considered in terms of what can be predicted. The pattern of growth follows an even progress of development when environmental conditions (including physiological) are kept relatively constant. When we consider the whole child in terms of "the organismic age" (a term coined to represent the average of all age values at a point in time) the pattern is even, rather than in "spurts" and "plateaus." The general nature of the entire pattern, when graphed from data on intellectual, physical, social, and emotional growth tends to appear as a line with a uniform slope throughout the age range (13). In other words "total growth tends toward stable increments which are made up of counterbalancing fluctuations."

Although the general pattern of growth is uniform, each of the individual aspects of growth such as weight, height, reading ability, or mental capacity has its own growth pattern. The relationships of one aspect to another, e.g., physiological development necessary for learning to read and emotional development, are as yet undiscovered. If such relationships were known, it would perhaps be easier to make guidance and counseling more scientific and exact.

## Concepts of Growth and Developmental Tasks

In 1945, Prescott (3) called our attention to the fact that growing boys and girls, during the several phases of their development, face a series of common "developmental tasks." We expect them to learn to walk at a certain age, to talk, to dress themselves, to get along in groups, to behave as boys and girls, to act conventionally in a myriad of situations, to read, write, figure, spell, to respect property, to accept the values that characterize American life, to find ways of earning a living, to select a marriage partner—in short, to learn to live a normal life. Individuals naturally tend to work out these tasks when they reach the appropriate maturity levels. Failure to do so frequently requires assistance by someone capable of rendering such guidance.

Corey (4) speaks of developmental tasks as certain developmental lessons that must be learned. These learnings are a consequence of the interaction between the individual's maturing body and the pressure of his social and physical environment. Unless a person can learn these required tasks, he cannot be considered as enjoying a reasonably happy and adequate life; and thus will be in need of guidance.

Havighurst (*10:25–41*), the leading exponent of the developmental task philosophy, lists the following as tasks of elementary school children:

1. Learning physical skills necessary for ordinary games.
2. Building wholesome attitudes toward oneself as a growing organism.
3. Learning to get along with age mates.
4. Learning an appropriate masculine or feminine social role.
5. Developing fundamental skills in reading, writing, and calculating.
6. Developing concepts necessary for everyday living.
7. Developing conscience, morality, and a scale of values.
8. Achieving personal independence.
9. Developing attitudes toward social groups and institutions.

Havighurst feels that it would be useful to regard the above developmental tasks as the objectives of elementary education as every school program contributes to the child's achievement of the task (*10:92*). Consequently, a like group of objectives may be listed for the secondary school. By such a procedure the concept of developmental tasks helps in discovering and stating the purposes of education.

The developmental task concept is useful for guidance workers al-

though it requires a thorough foundation of knowledge of human growth and development. It emphasizes the concept of "social expectancy" (that is, what society expects) as well as the concept of maturity. In some cases social expectancy and maturity do not coincide. The developmental task concept emphasizes the proper time for teaching or achieving the task, and implies that there is an optimum time for introducing and achieving the task. For example, in many societies all children are expected to learn to read when seven years of age; is this the optimum age of maturity for readiness to learn to read? In the elementary grades, no guidance program should permit a policy that all children be introduced to reading at the same time. A knowledge of basic growth concepts and of techniques for the evaluation of growth is requisite to any individual who prepares for guidance work.

## Important Areas of Student Life

The efficient guidance worker always attempts to obtain an accurate picture of the child he assists. It would be desirable to know everything about the individual including his present life, his past life, and as much as possible about the present and past life of his family. Since this is impossible we shall list some of the more specific areas in which study must be made.

### GENERAL INFORMATION

The data that should be collected in this area pertains to personal information about the student. Some of the important items necessary are: name, nickname, home address, sex, birthplace, and date of birth. A knowledge of the student's brothers and sisters with their respective ages should also be collected to provide a better picture of family life. To complete the personal information the names of parents or guardians and their birthplaces, national descent, marital and educational status, and religious affiliation should be noted. When the above items are recorded for each student, a basis for effective guidance work has been started and without such data haphazard assistance will result.

### HEALTH

The importance of physical and mental health data can hardly be overemphasized; it forms the basis of all constructive guidance information. One study found that health items pertaining to vision, hearing,

his leisure time and his attitude toward school and community activities help to determine the student's self-adjustment. A continuous gathering of such information will provide the significant tendencies toward social and emotional growth.

## INTERESTS

If interests coincide with abilities and proper motivation is provided, then we can assume that maximum progress and growth will occur. As a result the student can gain much happiness and satisfaction from his work. Areas that should be explored and gathered for determination of interests might include educational and vocational plans; avocational and stated interests; changes in interests and hobbies; and the tentative course program of the student.

## PLANS FOR THE FUTURE

For effective guidance, data indicating the student's goals, plans, or objectives are highly important. Without a knowledge of such goals, immediate and future, it is difficult to assist the student in developing self-direction toward his goals. It is recognized that such plans for elementary school pupils may be very changeable; but the teacher and guidance worker can help the student in selecting goals that would be appropriate for his particular interests, abilities, background, and level of aspiration. A knowledge of work experiences, part time and full, and family pressures, would contribute to a better understanding of his goals.

## FAMILY BACKGROUND

A valuable source of information, vital for the effective guidance of the pupil, is a knowledge of the home from which the student comes. The home probably has a greater influence on the pupil than any other single factor or combination of factors. The knowledge of the economic status, cultural environment, student's relationship to parents and siblings, and general atmosphere of the home are all needed if we are going to understand the child accurately. It is helpful, too, to have information in regard to the type of community in which the home is located, availability of books and magazines for home reading, and language spoken in the home.

While the above areas are not all inclusive, they are vital as far as knowledge for guidance is concerned.

## TECHNIQUES USED FOR COLLECTING DATA

To collect the various types of necessary information for effective guidance, many different techniques will have to be used. Although all the techniques contribute data that are necessary for a complete understanding of the individual, the use of several provides a check for error and misinterpretation. Sometimes the various methods are classified according to the source of the material, while at other times a separation is made according to the subjectivity or objectivity of the tool in question. It should be stressed that while objectivity is highly desirable, less objective techniques should not be overlooked because much valuable information can be obtained only through subjective devices.

### Standardized Tests

From the beginning of the measurement movements great emphasis has been placed on the use of standardized tests for collecting information about students. Since Binet's development of the first individual intelligence test, the growth in the number of new tests has been phenomenal; the variety and types of tests that are available to the guidance worker today number in the thousands. Chapter 7 provides not only a detailed description of types of tests, but also some practical suggestions for the use of test results. Twenty years ago we had more faith in the formalized test than we have today. Unfortunately, there are still some guidance workers who assume that a testing program is a panacea for all educational problems. It is well recognized today that standardized tests have limitations and should be supplemented with other techniques of gathering data.

Notwithstanding these limitations the formalized measuring instruments probably contribute more to our understanding of pupils than any other single method. Because of the nature of their construction according to a rather rigid experimental process, they possess higher validity and reliability than other techniques. Their objectivity provides data that is meaningful from situation to situation and from one guidance worker to another. The behavior which they sample in a relatively short time might take hours to collect by other techniques. When used in their proper role and as a means for assisting the student in his growth and development, standardized tests make a formal contribution in obtaining data about pupils.

*Non-Standardized Methods*

From an objective, impersonal, reliable, and valid point of view, tests are preferable to informal observation in gathering information about the child. Yet their very objectivity and impersonal characteristics become their greatest weakness in studying the child as a dynamic human being. Although somewhat subjective, the method of direct observation of the child in real life action will give meaning to the data collected from formalized tests. In fact certain types of data can be gained only by such methods.

The various informal procedures for studying the child include biography, diary, questionnaire, rating scale, anecdotal record, interview, products of work, and case history. Such techniques can be readily used by all persons concerned with the guidance of the child. Specific descriptions and uses of these methods will be discussed in other parts of this book. Suffice it to say that information gathered from these techniques will provide data of a human dynamic individual in the process of development and growth.

*Projective and Expressive Techniques*

Projective techniques are devices for the clinician in helping him to diagnose the individual personality. Their use as a diagnostic medium will ordinarily be limited to the clinician and psychiatrist. However, the guidance worker should understand and appreciate these techniques, for many times he can make use of them in his work. For example, the teacher may use art, drama, music, recreation—that is, the expressive or creative phases of education—which are actually projective in nature. In addition, the appreciation of these techniques will develop a favorable attitude toward the specialist, so important for the coöperation necessary to have an effective guidance program.

The projective method of studying children involves the creation of a situation in which the child will reveal his private world of meanings, his values, and his feelings. The process of projection is unconscious, and in attributing to others their unconscious feelings, ideas, and attitudes, the individual may release a certain tension which gives temporary relief. Projective techniques include sentence completion tests; oral and written story-telling; Rorschach Ink-Blot Test; Thematic-Apperception Test; and creative expression in the arts, play, psychodrama, and socio-

drama. Detailed descriptions of these various techniques will be given in chapters where they particularly apply.

## Cumulative Records

The cumulative record contributes to guidance by providing a sound basis for understanding the pupil. It becomes the primary source of study by teachers who wish to discover clues to the causes of difficulties of behavior, or to become acquainted with newly transferred pupils, or to determine the capacity and achievement of their pupils. Without systematic record, changes in behavior over a period of several years, whether they be desirable or undesirable, are unlikely to be detected by teachers who see the student only a few months. Moreover, progress relative to the broader, long-term educational objectives is apt to be lost unless such records are appropriately summarized, and carefully organized. The cumulative records also provide an excellent background for interviews, counseling, or making reports to parents.

## Other Sources of Information

While a complete list of techniques and sources of information would be rather exhaustive, it is imperative that we note a number of sources not already cited. Other sources that might contribute valuable information to a better understanding of the student are: (1) health examinations; (2) life history written by someone other than the student; (3) case study; (4) record of extracurricular activities; (5) record in try-out or exploratory courses; (6) school transcript; (7) letters of recommendations; (8) daily schedule of all activities; (9) interviews with parents, faculty members, or specialists such as doctor, social case worker, psychologist, and so on; and (10) home visit.

### SUMMARY

No one technique provides all the information that we need to know about the individual. Probably the best procedure is to collect data by all the techniques available and assemble them in the form of a case history for use and study. The present chapter was concerned with the various areas of student life that should be studied and with some of the techniques available for obtaining the information.

The most important study of education is the study of the student. Without a knowledge about the individual very little effective teaching

or counseling can be accomplished. Without complete information about students it would be extremely difficult to reorganize the curriculum or provide the parent with a report of progress. All information gathered about the pupil should be directly related to his growth and development. Each pupil grows in a unique pattern and has peculiar and specific needs of his own. Without a thorough knowledge of fundamental principles of growth and development it would be difficult for the guidance worker to relate the needs to the particular individual in his own peculiar situation.

It would be desirable to know everything possible about the student. But, since this is impractical, the following eight areas were discussed as a minimum basis for guidance:

1. General information
2. Health
3. Achievement
4. Aptitude
5. Personal adjustment
6. Interest
7. Plans for the future
8. Family background

To collect the various types of information that are necessary for effective guidance many techniques should be used. The techniques discussed in this chapter were classified according to their degree of objectivity.

Non-standardized methods included the interview, anecdotal records, autobiography, and observation. The semi-structured techniques discussed were questionnaires, rating scales, self-surveys, and sociometric methods. Projective methods are very helpful in reviewing the meaning, values, and feelings of pupils. Such tools as the sentence completion test; Rorschach Ink-Blot Test; Thematic-Apperception Test; and painting, play, sociodrama, and psychodrama all contribute in obtaining information of this nature. Probably the most widely used of any of the techniques are the standardized tests. While tests have certain limitations it is inconceivable that much effective guidance could be done without their use. The various types of tests noted were intelligence, achievement, aptitude, interest, and personality. The cumulative records of the school provide a valuable source of information; when it is properly completed, this record provides information that is very helpful for effective teaching, counseling, reporting to parents, and public relations.

While it is impossible to make complete lists of techniques that could be used in gathering information, a number of other sources, such as health examination, school transcripts, home visits, and so on, were noted.

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# Gaining Health Knowledge About the Individual

## INTRODUCTION

THE total health program of the school involves four important areas: (1) the establishment and maintenance of a healthful school environment which fosters the physical and mental health of the individual, (2) a competent school health instruction program, (3) an adequate health service, and (4) the provision of a recreational and physical education program dedicated to the building of strong bodies and healthy minds (26). It is not the purpose of this chapter to explore all of these areas, but we are primarily concerned with the guidance worker gaining an understanding of the role that health plays in the adjustment of the student. Such an understanding should include a knowledge of various health factors that influence the child, sources of health information, and the role of the various guidance personnel in gathering health data.

## IMPORTANCE OF HEALTH KNOWLEDGE

Physical health plays a very important role in the life of every individual. It is important because it not only keeps the body fit but also helps to keep the individual emotionally fit. It has been customary to refer to certain characteristics of the individual as "physical" and to other processes as "mental," but such a distinction is arbitrary for this distinction does not occur clearly among different functions. When there are variations among the physical functions of the individual there is a corresponding influence on the emotional behavior. That is to say that be-

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havior involves psychosomatic relationships. The energy, drive, and vitality of a person is largely dependent upon his health.

Health is a determinant of desirable social development, for normal play activity requires normal health. If a child is weak or disabled, he receives attentions and reactions different from those accorded his more normal peers. As a result, the chances that the child will feel different increase and the possibility for maladjustment becomes greater. In fact, often the most serious consequences and problems presented by physical defect or disease are not medical but psychological (35).

Every guidance worker needs basic information about the health of the student. All too often defective hearing or eyesight, or general health are overlooked as possible causes of a student's behavior. Therefore, one should be alert to spot these difficulties and observe their relationship to the classroom, extracurricular activities, and vocational choice.

Unquestionably a tremendous health problem exists concerning school children. While there is no definitive study covering the health needs of all the children, numerous sample studies have focused attention on the problem.

In 1944 it was estimated that approximately ten million children under 21 years of age had visual difficulties. Of these 15,000 were totally blind; 50,000 were partially seeing; and 9,935,000 had refractive errors. This means, then, that about one in five had some eye difficulty (45).

In 1944 it was estimated that two million children (approximately one in 25) in the United States under 21 years of age had some form of hearing impairment. Of these 17,000 were deaf (45).

It has been estimated that more than ten million children under 21 years of age in the United States have physical handicaps. Some of these would include 500,000 with orthopedic and plastic conditions; 5,000,-000 with rheumatic fever or heart disease; 4,000,000 with major allergic disorders; 200,000 with epilepsy and convulsive disorders; and 35,000 with diabetes (16).

Data included in Minnesota studies and in other investigations show that at least 90 percent of school-age children have one or more dental defects. Sixteen-year-olds average nine decayed and several lost teeth (14).

Medical studies on nutritional status as well as surveys of food consumption have consistently shown that many children in all parts of the country have diets that are far from adequate. According to a study of

diet habits of 59,727 children undertaken in 38 states between June 1945–1950, two out of three children reported diets needing improvement, while two out of five reported diets which were actually poor (*15*).

A recent study (*17*) concerning the mental health of American people reveals the following:

1. Over half of all the patients in hospitals on any given day—some 600,000—are mental patients.
2. Every year 150,000 patients are committed to mental hospitals.
3. Two million men were either rejected or discharged by the armed services because of neuropsychiatric disorders.
4. From 30 to 50 percent of all patients consulting doctors have complaints due at least in part to emotional disorders.
5. Of 350,000 people disabled each year from accidents, 60 percent stem partly from personality causes and nearly one-third have no other cause.

According to statistics more than $500,000,000 is spent annually in the United States for patent and prescribed medicines. This amounts to approximately four dollars annually for every man, woman, and child. While not all of this sum is wasted, too often the use for such medicine is based on self diagnosis, which frequently turns out to be incorrect (*8*).

The previous studies illustrate the importance of health and its significance in the total adjustment of the student. Diagnosis and treatment of defects, malnutrition, and illness is a matter for experts. The primary contributions of guidance workers and teachers in meeting the health needs of youth are: (1) observation of the children for the purpose of detecting symptoms of health problems and then referring such children to proper authority for diagnosis and treatment, and (2) using information supplied by the expert to help the child make an adequate adjustment. The responsibilities of the various personnel in gathering health information will be discussed later in this chapter. In order to understand the goal which we seek, it is useful to visualize the healthy child.

The characteristics of a healthy child may be conveniently classified into two areas: (1) those relating to his personal appearance, and (2) those involving his general behavior. The following features are suggested as characteristics of most healthy children:

1. The mucous membranes (e.g. the lips and palpebral conjunctiva) are definitely pink in color.

2. The facial expression is happy, often radiant; smiling is frequent, and the eyes are bright and responsive.
3. The skin is smooth, elastic, and covers a sufficient layer of subcutaneous fat to give the limbs a rounded appearance.
4. The tissue-turgor is normal.
5. The muscles are well formed and their tonus is good.
6. The limb-bones are almost straight.
7. The stance is well balanced, erect, and graceful.
8. The spine is straight and the shoulder-girdles do not drop.
9. The arches of the feet are well formed.
10. The movements of limbs and body, in walking and running, are characterized by elasticity, agility, vigor, and poise (6).

## WHAT SHOULD BE INCLUDED IN THE HEALTH APPRAISAL?

Health appraisal is a comparatively new term. It refers to the coöperative process of determining the total health status of the child, in which parent, teacher, physician, nurse, dentist, psychologist, and others may play an important role (32:6). Health appraisal has a broader meaning than physical examination, and it implies the use of numerous procedures in determining the health status of a child. It is the purpose of this section to consider the health information that should be gathered about the child in order to reveal his health assets and problems. The purposes of such an appraisal may be noted as follows:

1. To provide enlightening data on the health status of the children
2. To provide information on handicaps or deviations from the normal
3. To provide the basis for individual compensation for irremedial handicaps or deviations
4. To provide the basis of classification in the modern program of physical education
5. To serve as an educational experience (33)

Many factors should be considered in the health appraisal, and the information gathered about each individual may vary from school to school. However, there are general areas in which health information should be sought for every pupil.

In the first place, the health history of the student should be noted. This might include information concerning any inheritable diseases and predisposition to diseases such as tuberculosis; a record of communicable diseases, past injuries and illnesses of the student; and a record of any

immunizations against diseases. It would also be very desirable to include information concerning the attitudes of the family toward health practices and diseases, or reactions to organic deficiency (4).

Data concerning the present health of the student should be explored. The personal appearance of the pupil is important in social adjustment and provides many clues pertaining to his health status. Indices that should be noted may be posture, skin, complexion, mannerisms, and vitality. It is important that data concerning the growth and developmental pattern of the child should be collected. Thus height, weight, and body type of student might well be noted on the student's health record. Such information allows the guidance worker and teacher to observe if the pupil is following the expected pattern or if other factors, such as nutrition, may be hindering normal growth. One of the main purposes of the appraisal should be to detect physical defects. A knowledge of defects of eyes, ears, nose, throat, mouth, teeth, and lungs is essential for effective counseling or teaching. In many cases such defects can be corrected, and this will add to the student's comfort as well as relieve his anxiety. It is desirable to ascertain the health practices of the student. Information on diet, sleep, exercise, cleanliness, and the use of narcotics, tobacco, and alcohol are necessary for effective health counseling (27:103).

A third area of recorded health information should include the student's health knowledge and his attitudes toward his own condition. Many times the health practices of a student prevail because of his attitudes toward particular physical characteristics or health conditions. In addition, he must possess some understanding concerning desirable health conditions and healthful living before he can put such knowledge into practice. Records of health and class tests should be noted as indices of health knowledge possessed by the student. Often students disregard good health practices because of lack of knowledge of good health habits.

Because the health status of individuals includes both the physical and mental, information concerning the emotional and mental adjustment of the student should be gathered. Thus, the results of psychological tests, observations by teachers, records of illness and truancy, and incidents of infraction of rules are all indices of the mental adjustment of the student. Unless such data are periodically collected and recorded much valuable information will be neglected and lost.

## How Can Health Information Be Gathered?

The previous section discussed the types of health information that should be collected; the following pertains to the various techniques used in gathering of such information. Inasmuch as no single test or examination can appraise the health status of a child, a variety of procedures may be considered: (1) health histories, (2) teacher's observations, (3) screening tests, (4) medical examinations, (5) dental examinations, (6) special surveys, and (7) psychological tests. Each technique makes a unique contribution to the health appraisal and should be used to supplement other procedures (*1:267*).

### Health Histories

The health history offers a practical way of initiating a program of health information. Important information may be gathered through preschool records, personal conferences, and questionnaires. The information gathered by this procedure should correspond with specific information mentioned in the preceding section.

### Teacher's Observations

The teacher is the key person in the health appraisal process because he is the one person who is in continual contact with the student at school. While he should observe daily the physical and mental conditions of his students, the parent should be alert to the evidences of health at home. The continual observation of the child in school and at home constitutes an important part of the health appraisal program. The accompanying chart presents a list of signs and symptoms which teachers can detect in their day-by-day contact with their pupils, either by direct observation or by questioning (*46:31*).

In addition to these physical characteristics, the teacher should observe for indications of poor adjustment to the environment at home or in school, or both, and refer such students to the proper professional source for help. Some signs and symptoms of social or emotional maladjustments are (*46:32*):

Overtimidity; seclusiveness
Overaggressiveness; constant rivalry and quarreling with others
Excessive daydreaming; persistent inattentiveness not due to any discoverable physical cause

Extreme sensitiveness to criticism expressed or implied; feelings hurt easily; cries easily

Difficulty in reading or reciting not due to any discoverable physical cause

Failure to advance in school at a normal rate in spite of good physical health and adequate intellectual capacity

COMMON SYMPTOMS OF PHYSICAL DEFECTS

| Point of Observation | Physical Signs | Behavior | Complaints |
|---|---|---|---|
| *General appearance and behavior* | Excessive thinness; excessive overweight; very small or very large in body build for age; pallor; weary expression; poor posture; dark circles or puffiness under eyes. | Acts tired or apathetic; is easily irritated; makes frequent trips to toilet; has persistent nervous habits, such as muscular twitching or biting of nails or lips; is subject to spasms (fits), fainting spells, or frequent nosebleeds; gets short of breath after mild exertion and climbing stairs; lacks appetite; vomits frequently. | Feels tired; doesn't want to play; has aches or pains; feels sick to stomach; feels dizzy. |
| *Hair and scalp* | Stringy, lusterless hair; small bald spots; crusty sores on scalp; nits in hair. | Scratches head frequently. | Head itches. |
| *Ears* | Discharge from ears; cotton in ear; tired strained expression long before day is over; watchful, sometimes bewildered expression. | Is persistently inattentive; asks to have questions repeated; habitually fails to respond when questioned; mispronounces common words; cocks one ear toward the speaker. | Has earache; has buzzing or ringing in ears; ears feel stuffy; hears noises in head. |
| *Eyes* | Inflamed or watery eyes; frequent styes; crusted lids; cross-eye. | Holds book too close to eyes; squints at book or blackboard; persistently rubs or blinks eyes; reads poorly. | Head aches; eyes ache or smart; cannot see well (vision is blurred). |

Many of the above characteristics are not unusual in the majority of children, but if they continue over a period of time then some corrective action should be taken. In this respect, the continual observation plays an important role.

## Screening Tests

Screening tests refer to those procedures used to give a preliminary evaluation of physical defects, and are usually administered by teachers or nurses to screen out those children needing further examination and diagnosis by specialists (9). Screening tests most frequently used identify problems relating to visual acuity, hearing acuity, growth in height and weight, and speech. When these screening tests are supplemented by the various observations already mentioned, the student needing medical attention can be found and referred to the proper source for treatment. In addition, the teacher is in a desirable position to aid the parents in understanding the importance of the daily observation of their own children in the home.

## Medical Examinations

The medical examination refers to that part of the health appraisal conducted by a physician. Two types of examinations are usual: periodic examination and referral, or special examinations. The periodic examinations are given by the physician according to a predetermined schedule and differ from the referral examinations in that they are general in nature, have definite educational objectives, and are not directed to any particular part or condition (32:8). The periodic examination may be conducted by the family physician or the doctor serving the school. The joint committee recommended that the periodic examination be spaced as follows: (1) preliminary to entrance to kindergarten or first grade; (2) at entrance to fourth grade; (3) at entrance to seventh grade; (4) at entrance to tenth grade.

Special examinations are not general but are usually conducted on referral for some special condition or cause. Van der Slice (44) suggests that periodic examination could be supplemented by examining:

1. Pupils new to the system
2. Cardiacs and other pupils known to have serious defects
3. Pupils returning to school following serious illness or accident
4. Candidates for athletic teams

5. Pupils working in cafeteria
6. Pupils referred by teachers for cause

It should be recognized that while teachers, guidance workers, and administrators can make referral for medical examinations, they should not under any condition make a diagnosis nor apply treatment except on the advice of a physician.

### Dental Examinations

While it is desirable for the school system to provide periodic dental examination, many do not have the facilities nor the finances to do so. Therefore, the dental health problem is one of educating the pupils and parents to the importance of dental care and developing attitudes that will lead to action.

### Special Surveys

Any survey that can be made to gain information about factors that contribute to the health of the students that is not collected by the other techniques mentioned can be classified as a special survey. An example of such a survey would be the collecting of information concerning the health environment of the student. Factors that could be included are the playground, classrooms, rest rooms, safety hazards, water supply, cafeteria, etc.

### Psychological Tests

A significant aspect of the health appraisal lies in the observation and detection of mental health problems. Three main approaches are feasible in developing a mental health program for the school: (1) helping students develop sound patterns of mental health, (2) providing the classroom and school environment conducive to the preservation of effective mental functioning, and (3) offering a program of diagnosis and treatment suitable for maladjusted students (27:109). All educators should be interested in providing an educational environment to contribute to the optimum adjustment of the student. But a constant appraisal must be carried on in order to detect and help those individuals who are not making a satisfactory adjustment. Teachers play their role in this respect through observation and their knowledge of mental hygiene techniques. In many cases teachers administer group tests, and observation of student behavior during a testing session can support and supplement the teacher's previous impressions. The professional

guidance worker can contribute greatly to the health appraisal through the administering of the testing program, carefully recording the results of such tests, and helping maladjusted students to become better adjusted. The counselor can use the results to better acquaint teachers and administrators with the need for identifying individual differences and planning a program to meet such differences before maladjustment or acute conflict occurs.

## HEALTH RECORDS IN GUIDANCE

The health record is a means of organizing and interpreting the significant data about the background, growth, and needs of the pupils in the school (5). Cumulative health records serve many purposes; among the most important of which are (1:288):

1. To provide significant information concerning the child's preschool health (obtained from health history or from records of preschool health conferences).
2. To provide information concerning each child's immunization status and communicable disease experience.
3. To present a picture of each child's growth in height and weight.
4. To give teachers information concerning the remediable defects of each child, if any, and the recommendation of the school physician concerning them.
5. To provide information concerning the disability produced by non-remediable conditions so that it may be used in adapting the school program to the child's needs.
6. To provide data concerning the dental care which each child has received or needs.
7. To provide cumulative information concerning teachers' observations, screening tests, medical examinations, and all other appraisal procedures.
8. To make readily available the names of the family doctor, dentist of choice, and preferred hospital.
9. To keep in an accessible place information concerning where a parent may be reached in case of emergency.

It should be remembered that records in themselves have no value. They assume their importance when they are intelligently and skillfully used in the guidance of the child. These records should be as complete as possible but not so voluminous that they take all the teacher's, nurse's, or counselor's time in keeping them up to date.

There are usually two types of records, each filling a specific and

particular purpose. Both types should be used in the school. The first kind is a separate record kept by the nurse, teacher, or persons directly concerned with the child, and its purpose is to have a detailed picture of the behavior patterns. One criticism of this type of record is that separate records alone tend to be fragmentary, are often faulty, and have a tendency toward distortion. However, only through daily recorded observation can a complete health picture be obtained on each pupil.

The second type of record consists of a composite picture of all health factors of the student and is usually known as the permanent health record. On this all the health information is compiled to give a picture of the whole child. Such a record should include vision, hearing, special handicaps and impairments, results of physician's examinations, immunization, communicable diseases, speech handicaps, and teeth (5).

All records pertinent to the student should be kept in a place readily accessible to the person responsible for student counseling. In the elementary school the folders may be kept in the teacher's classroom, and he will be responsible for their upkeep. Because of the increasing departmentalization in the secondary school, the records should be located in a central place, and many times such files are located in the counselor's office. Even though all health information will not likely be placed on the student's cumulative records, the most pertinent and essential items should be summarized thereon.

## WHO SHOULD GATHER HEALTH INFORMATION

Health appraisal, in which many different people participate, refers to a coöperative process of determining the total health status of the child. In the present section various designations of responsibilities are discussed so that this information will be gathered in a systematic way.

### Administrative Responsibilities

The administrative leadership usually determines the quantity and effectiveness of the health appraisal and guidance program. The school administrator must provide leadership in establishing a health education program. In coöperation with his faculty he must consider such factors as (1:262–267):

1. The scope and content of the health program
2. Coördinating school health efforts with the various health activities of the community and group within the community

3. Provide appropriate personnel including a medical consultant, nurse, and a director if so needed
4. Provide the facilities and equipment that are necessary for the various appraisal techniques
5. Provide them with space for health counseling activities
6. Provide a program of evaluation which will set the stage for future improvements

The administrator plays an important role in the public relations process through which he informs the community of needed health services. These various factors entail the leadership and directions of the administrator.

## Teacher Responsibilities

If the guidance program is concerned with the health of the pupil, the teacher is a key person in the functioning of the program. In other parts of this chapter we have discussed some of the various specific factors that the teacher can contribute in the way of observation and screening techniques. While these are very important functions of the teacher, there are others which he can contribute.

The teacher can help arrange the school life of the student so that both the physical and mental environment will be conducive to good health. In this respect he should be concerned with such environmental factors as heat, light, ventilation, safety measures, and so on. The emotional climate of the classroom plays a vital role in the mental health of the student. The teacher's primary responsibility is the establishing of an emotional climate that will be conducive to effective learning and optimum adjustment. In addition he may be called upon to help in extracurricular activities and in scheduling and registering the students. Excessive or deficient social participation, or poor scheduling of courses, may very well affect the health of the student. The primary responsibility of the health of the children rests with the parents, but the teacher can assist parents to understand how home life may contribute to the students' physical well-being. The general attitude of the parents and the background in which they live provides the basis for the development of health attitudes. The teacher can help the parents to understand the importance of various home facilities on the child's health and the role that they play in his adjustment.

Like the administrator, the teacher plays an important part in coöper-

ating with community agencies in contributing to the student's well-being. They should be concerned with various physical factors in the community that are detrimental to the health of the people and strive to eradicate such conditions. In addition, the teachers can work for better recreational facilities, hobby projects, and vocational opportunities within the community. Such factors play an important role in the mental health of the student.

## Counselor Responsibilities

In regard to health problems, the counselor is an amateur and should recognize his limitations. As far as possible, the counselor should have records of the physical status of any student that he is counseling. During the interview the counselor may get information concerning the health of the client and as a result refer students for health reasons. In all cases counselors must be alert for signs and symptoms of health problems and must call the attention of such deficiencies to the proper authorities.

While medical examinations are periodically administered, the counselor should try to discover if the medical data places new limitations on the student's educational and vocational program. If the student must reduce his class load or is restricted from entering any occupational area because of health factors, the counselor must help that student to adjust accordingly. He must constantly attempt to find out the relationship of the medical findings to other aspects of the student's adjustment (12).

In the testing program, the counselor is in a unique position to detect students with mental health problems. He should observe the behavior of pupils during the tests and carefully check test results so as to select any students who may need counseling and refer them to proper persons for such treatment. Caution should be used in selecting students, and a combination of factors should be employed in designating a pupil as being poorly adjusted. Test results alone should never be the sole determining criteria.

### Others

There are other specialists such as the nurse, dentist, and physician who carry important responsibilities in the gathering of health information. While their importance is recognized, it is neither within the scope

nor prerogative of this book to designate their responsibilities. It will suffice to acknowledge their contributions in diagnosis and treatment of pupils within the school system.

It would not be appropriate to leave out the contributions that the nonacademic personnel can make to the health of the student. Without the aid of janitors, groundskeepers, and other custodial personnel, the environmental factors of health will frequently deteriorate to the point of being detrimental to the pupil's health.

## SUMMARY

The purpose of gathering health information is to apply such data so that students may be helped in gaining an optimum adjustment. Such material should be assembled as soon as the child enters school and should proceed with him from one grade to the next and from one school to the next. Only by this process may the total health status of the child be appraised and information be available for health guidance. The purpose of this chapter has been to point out the types of health data necessary for effective health guidance, and describe some of the techniques used in obtaining this information. Various responsibilities in the accumulation of health information were discussed for the administrator, teachers, and counselor. Such data can be very useful in helping the student determine the: (1) number of courses to be taken, (2) type of physical education program to participate in, (3) number of extra-curricular activities, (4) nutritional requirements, (5) need for a special educational program to meet his needs, and (6) general well-being. The ultimate use of information is the criterion of any adequate health program.

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# CHAPTER 7

## Testing in the Guidance Program

### THE PLACE OF TESTS IN THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM

IN a foregoing chapter we stated that the most important study in the school is "the study of the student." Information necessary for effective guidance, teaching, and learning along with a number of specific techniques for collecting such data were illustrated. Among the techniques cited was the use of standardized tests. All too frequently and extensively the word "tests" has become synonymous with guidance or counseling. The testing program is not the guidance program; rather it is only one procedure for collecting information about the student. Likewise, test analysis is only one phase of the total guidance program. We do not minimize the value of tests; rather, we make a plea for a proper perspective and balance in the total study of the student. In addition to academic achievement or mental ability, various social and psychological factors must be understood about each pupil if we expect to develop an effective guidance program. Tests provide valuable knowledge concerning the psychological makeup of the student in terms of his mental ability, achievements, interests, aptitudes, and personality characteristics. While their contribution may be limited, their importance as aids to guidance cannot be questioned.

### Why Use Tests?

Administering a test is a means to an end, the purpose being to obtain data about the individual which, in turn, may lead to the improve-

ment of instruction and adjustment. We shall present a number of reasons why tests have assumed such an important role in our school system.

Foremost of the desirable characteristics of tests is their impartial, objective nature. The large amount of available data that can be collected about the child for a case study is little more than parental or teacher opinion and needs verification by more objective information. Tests provide this necessary information.

As opposed to trial and error procedures, the time-saving element offered by the use of tests is another desirable characteristic. Using tests allows one to obtain in a relatively short time a picture of the ability, achievement, and interests of a child otherwise obtainable only through time-consuming and cumbersome procedures.

Still another advantage of standardized tests is that the results have approximately the same meaning for all trained personnel. No counselor or teacher can be with a student throughout his entire life; therefore, he must depend upon a clear and concise method for transmitting information about the student. Where words and opinions may have different meanings for different persons, a percentile rating or a standard score has universal meaning for those trained in their use.

Tests often provide clues permitting the counselor to gain facts not readily observable. The elements of a personality problem, for example, are usually subtle and concealed; often it is difficult for even a trained counselor to get a disturbed person to express himself honestly. An objective test, such as a personality inventory, will frequently give the counselor clues concerning the direction in which the trouble lies.

The use of tests increases the probability of sampling all the traits of the individual. Through association and observation many abilities may be noted, but a disability or talent entirely missed by other procedures is frequently uncovered by a test. Fortunately, the information gained from tests permits us to perceive the individual in terms of factual material that may guide us in assisting him to meet his problems.

A school-wide testing schedule supplements information gathered by subjective observation in which we may have less confidence. Carefully planned and wisely used, a testing program provides one basis for meeting the needs of *all* the children, and prevents a *neglect of those* children who are overlooked in the subjective techniques of observation.

*Adequacy of Tests*

The question concerning the adequacy of tests points to some rather controversial issues among educators. Such arguments are often not directly concerned with tests themselves and the purposes for which they are intended, but rather with two central factors, mainly: (1) the overuse of tests, and (2) the misuse of tests.

The adequacy of any test will depend upon its validity, reliability, and availability of norms. Two of the most difficult procedures in test construction, for example, are the determination of a criterion for validity and the obtaining of an adequate representative sample. The reader is referred to Super (*39*) and Remmers and Gage (*32*) for an adequate orientation into the procedures and steps in test construction. For purposes of illustration, however, the field of intelligence testing is appropriate. Intelligence tests represent the most carefully standardized group of tests available, yet recent research (*17*) indicates that the sampling in the majority of these tests may be biased in favor of the children from the American middle class. The conclusions of these studies indicate that intelligence tests now commonly used underestimate the learning ability of students from the lower socio-economic group. The conclusions of a related study point up a distinct relationship, though not large, between the size of the community in which a student has lived and his scores earned on the American Council on Education Psychological Examination (*47*). These examples show the need in test construction of getting an adequate sampling of human subjects along with appropriate items; otherwise, the test may not measure what it purports to measure.

The abuse of testing through overuse has been widespread. Advocates of testing have so welcomed the appearance of each new testing instrument that the testing programs have become costly, unwieldy, and not too rewarding in terms of usefulness. All too frequently teachers are assigned to administer and interpret the tests according to printed directions, under the false pretense that standardized tests are easy to administer, score, and interpret. Consequently, some educators have justifiably resisted the whole testing movement, especially when so-called objective or standardized measures have been included. The result has been a mobilization of two groups, the pro-tester and the anti-tester contrary to keeping tests in the proper perspective in the educational program. The

use of tests for collecting information has too often been allowed to predominate to the exclusion of other valuable techniques. In cases where the testing program has become the total guidance program, testing instruments make a limited contribution to the growth and adjustment of the pupil.

Not only have tests been overused; they have also been misused. Unfortunately, there have been occasions when an administrator has used as a threat or a promise of reward the results of tests to evaluate teaching ability. When teachers work under such pressure they tend to "drill" their students on the items and subject matter of the tests, even when they know that the method is inappropriate. There are occasions, too, when teachers develop false impressions of the child through standardized tests. Few teachers have patience to work with a child who scores low on an intelligence test. Likewise the counselor who fails to gather information from other sources frequently is unsympathetic to the counselee who has performed poorly on an intelligence test. Unwarranted use of standardized test norms has frequently led to vicious practices which defeat the true recognition of individual differences. Where norms have been used to compare class to class, school to school, or student to average, the principle of individual growth and development is too frequently forgotten. For selfish reasons certain critics have used the results of standardized tests in their attacks upon public education. Armed with the results of standardized tests these critics have pointed to the inadequacies of the schools in teaching the three "R's" and to their emphasis on the "frills" of education. The school whose norm is below the national average or whose students are unable to spell half of the words on a standardized test successfully is likely to become the target for abuse. In too many cases critics have failed to *recognize* that tests cannot measure all the objectives of education; frequently the more vital aims for which teachers strive cannot be measured objectively at all.

By way of summary we should like to state that inadequacies of standardized tests have been discussed not because tests should be deprecated, but because they should be made to assume their proper role in education. Tests are most effective when selected by scientific assessment, administered and interpreted by qualified personnel, and used where they contribute valuable information to help the guidance worker, teacher, school, and community to give each individual pupil better instruction and guidance. There are indications that the permanent and

useful role of measurement in education is now discernible. There is a trend toward integration of scientific testing into a continuous evaluation program which includes many means for assessing pupil growth. This evaluation, then, becomes an integral part of the instructional program.

## PLANNING A TESTING PROGRAM

An effective and successful testing program requires participation by the entire school staff in the development of the organizational design. The first step in planning the testing procedure is to assure a clear recognition of needs to be served. Such needs may pertain to counseling, *instruction, supervision, and administration. A second basic step in planning a testing program is to develop an understanding among all staff members of their respective roles and the contribution* that each can make to the program. This would include a consideration of how the results of tests can be used to improve both general and specific education.

### The Administrator's Role

The effectiveness of the testing program will depend on how well it is organized and administered according to the needs of the particular school involved. To insure appropriateness of the program, Bolmeier (9) suggests that local attention should be given to a number of the following administrative matters.

First, an effective program of testing should have a central point of responsibility, focusing primarily on the administration, with the coöperation of teachers, counselors, parents, and pupils. The administrator should be specifically responsible for selecting expertly trained people who are qualified to choose, administer, score, and *interpret the tests*. Provision should be made for physical facilities and clerical help necessary to the testing program.

The administrator is also responsible for developing a well defined philosophy of education among his educational staff in which the purposes of standardized tests and the role that they play in meeting the needs of the student will be clarified.

A third responsibility of the administrator in the testing program is to help determine the number of areas to be tested. Depending upon the size of the school's testing program, of course, this will ordinarily

include the areas of intelligence, achievement, interests, and adjustment. It is currently popular, too, to sample behavior in such other areas as home and family living, use of leisure time, health practices, and human relationships.

Fourth, the establishment of a schedule for giving the tests should be provided by the administrator. The frequency of testing will depend upon such factors as availability of funds, amount of time available for processing the tests, and the purpose for which they are being used. To establish an effective schedule, detailed planning should precede the actual launching of the testing program.

The fifth responsibility of the administrator is to provide the initiative and leadership in using the test results. The value of any testing program will be determined by its utilization of information gained. A number of specific uses of test results will be discussed later in the chapter.

In summary, the major responsibility of the administrator in the testing program is that of leadership. Without leadership little can be accomplished in establishing effective evaluation techniques.

## The Teacher's Role

There are many specialists in counseling and guidance who feel that testing should be supervised by counselors, school psychologists, or psychometrists only. These people contend that the complex and specialized nature of tests require personnel who have specialized training. On the other hand, there are professional people who contend that any *teacher who is willing to study the manual of directions can give and interpret tests.* The point of view of the authors lies somewhere between the extremes. Many tests were made to be used by teachers and permit the teacher to play an important role *in the testing program.* On the other hand, there are tests that should only be administered and interpreted by the carefully trained and experienced specialist. In the subsequent section we shall discuss some of the possible contributions to a testing program which can be made by the average classroom teacher.

First, by acquainting the students in his classes with the testing procedures, with the nature of the tests, and with the value of tests, the teacher can prepare the students for the testing procedure. With a proper orientation much of the fear and anxiety that usually accompanies any kind of testing can be eliminated or reduced.

Second, a teacher can evaluate critically the achievement tests to be

administered, especially in his own subject matter field. He is a qualified person to scrutinize the types of questions being asked, the number of items available, and the appropriateness of the questions in relation to the objectives.[1] His suggestions to the principal or the director of testing may provide the basis for obtaining tests more adequately adapted for meeting the particular needs of the student in their specific local environment.

Since most of the instruments are group tests, the teacher can (and will be asked to) administer them. Without the help of teachers, the expense of administering any large scale testing program would be formidable. Teachers will also be asked to score and record the results of tests. With proper encouragement and supervision, most teachers can very adequately oblige with such testing responsibilities.

A testing program is of no value unless the tests' results can be put to use. Here the teacher makes a significant contribution by using test results to individualize instruction and to assist the student in making desirable choices in life adjustment.

In order to make their maximum contributions, teachers should have the continual supervision and help of the counselor. Because of his special training, the counselor is capable of assisting teachers in the administration, scoring, interpretation, and uses of tests. This assistance may well be the basis of in-service training of the teacher in the total guidance program.

### Selecting Tests

Selecting tests for the guidance program may be the responsibility of a committee or may be the duty of the principal or counselor. An effective procedure would be to solicit the coöperation of the guidance committee to select tests from a group which had been first suggested by the counselor. In this manner the knowledge of the specialist would be used, but the opinions and judgments of a representative group of the entire faculty would also be given consideration. Some of the factors

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[1] In some cases teacher-made tests may be better than standardized instruments for measuring the school objectives. While the discussion in this chapter is oriented toward standardized tests, it does not imply that teacher-made tests do not provide a great contribution for measuring the growth of a student. The reader is referred to H. H. Remmers and N. L. Gage, *Educational Measurement and Evaluations*, New York, Harper & Brothers, 1943, pp. 138–143, for an excellent discussion of teacher-made tests vs. standardized tests.

that are involved in test selection as well as common types of available tests will be considered in this following discussion.[2]

Because there is no one test best for all pupils in all schools, any test selection should be made on the basis of, "what is best for this particular group of students in this particular situation." Traxler (44) suggests that the first principle in selecting tests should be to secure a statement of the school's objectives. Tests can then be chosen which measure the progress of the pupils toward achieving these objectives. Then the testing program can be adapted to the particular needs of the pupils.

Tests should be selected that have high validity and reliability. The validity of a test refers to the extent that a test measures what it purports to measure. For example, does an achievement test really measure achievement or does it measure *interests* or *intelligence?* Two measures, curricular validity and statistical validity, are worth considering. Curricular validity refers to the extent to which the content of the test is truly representative of the content of the course, book, or whatever is to be measured. Statistical validity refers to the degree to which a test correlates with some criterion chosen as an acceptable measure of the trait or thing in question. For example, if an achievement test has a high correlation with grades, we say that it has statistical validity.

The reliability of a test refers to the extent that a test measures consistently from one administration of the test to another. The common techniques for determining reliability are the test-retest and the split-half methods.[3] The test-retest reliability coefficient is obtained by correlating the scores received on the same test administered at two different times. There is usually a lapse of two or more weeks between the two administrations of the test; if the correlation is high, the reliability of the test is said to be high. Split-half reliability is determined by correlating half the items on the same test against the other half of items on that test. A common procedure is to correlate odd against even items and if the correlation is high the reliability is said to be high. This reliability

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[2] The reader should consult the following reference for help in choosing tests: American Psychological Association, "Technical Recommendations for Psychological Tests and Diagnostic Techniques," supplement to the *Psychological Bulletin* (March, 1954), vol. 51, no. 2, part 2.

[3] There are a number of other methods for estimating reliability and the reader is referred to the following books for their description: (1) H. H. Remmers and N. L. Gage, *Educational Measurement and Evaluation,* rev. ed., New York, Harper & Brothers, 1954; and (2) Lindquist, E. F. *et al.,* *Educational Measurement,* Washington, D. C., American Council on Education, 1951.

is for only one-half of the test and since reliability varies with the length of the test a correction for length must be made. This can be done by the use of the Spearman-Brown prophecy formula (23).

No matter how carefully tests are selected, they are needless if they cannot meet standards of validity and reliability. The question may be asked, "How high should the validity and reliability be before a test is selected?" The answer will depend upon the area being tested and the use for which the test is intended. Generally speaking, tests of intelligence and achievement should have validity coefficients between .40 to .50, and reliability coefficients around or above .90. Tests of interests and personality will often not have as large a correlation coefficient because of the nature of the test, and the unreliability or lack of validity of a criterion. Where tests are to be used on an individual rather than a group basis, the above mentioned levels should be strictly adhered to.

A third principle for selecting tests is to determine the usability of the test. Ross (35) uses the term "usability" to mean practicability and suggests several items to be considered. Among them are ease of administration, an important item when selecting a test. This means that such things as skill and training necessary for administration and clarity of instructions for both the student and tester should be reviewed. Ordinarily, group tests are easier to administer than individual tests; the directions, material difficulty, and vocabulary level might all influence the clarity of the instructions.

Tests that can be easily and objectively scored should usually be selected. The trend is toward the use of machine scoring answer sheets so that scores are obtained in a relatively short time. Rapidity of scoring and inexpensive scoring are essential for most guidance budgets.

Another practical point that should be considered in test usability pertains to the ease of interpretation and application of the test. The adequacy of a test in this respect will depend primarily upon the manual and the availability of norms. If adequate norms with a careful description are unavailable, then the application and interpretation of the data will be rather limited. Often the manuals of the best tests include information for their possible uses. This is a valuable adjunct to interpretation and application.

Consideration of the cost is always an important item in test selection. The cost of the test itself should be considered conjointly with additional cost for scoring and recording. Nevertheless, cost should not be the sole criterion for selection, not even the foremost one. For example, a test

costing 25 cents may be much more valuable than one costing 10 cents when all factors are considered.

A final item that should be considered under usability is the mechanical character of the test itself: size of the lettering, type of page, and general format, among others.

Because so many factors require attention in selecting tests, many guidance committees and counselors neglect to assess adequately the tests they use. Because it is difficult to remember all the important information concerning the large number of available measuring instruments, it is necessary to develop some method for keeping the pertinent information readily available. An example of a check list for such a purpose is shown below.

#### FORM FOR EVALUATING STANDARDIZED TESTS [4]

I. Preliminary data:    Name of test........................
Author.................... Publisher..................
Cost per test.......... Type: Individual........ Group........
Use suggested by author...................................
.........................................................
Reading level: Grade....... M.A........ IQ equivalent.......

II. Validity Indices    Number and Type    Criterion    Adequate?
                        of Subjects

......................  ..................  ..........  ........
......................  ..................  ..........  ........
......................  ..................  ..........  ........
......................  ..................  ..........  ........
......................  ..................  ..........  ........

III. Reliability Coefficients  Number and Type  Method Used  Other
                                                             Data

......................  ..................  ..........  .......
......................  ..................  ..........  .......
......................  ..................  ..........  .......
......................  ..................  ..........  .......

IV. Counselor's ratio ........ Standard Deviation ........ Range of
        Scores made by norm group .............................
        Percentage of forecasting efficiency.....................

[4] This check list is suggested by William C. Cottle, "A Form for Evaluating Standardized Tests," *Occupations* (December, 1951), 30:192.

V. Details of administration: Untimed........ Timed........ Under
25 min......... Under 45 min......... Under 90 min.........
Over 90 min.........
Material needed: Stopwatch........ Electographic pencil........
Special answer sheet........ Punch board........ Punch........
Other materials........
Special training needed? Yes...... No...... Type.............
Number of subtests and subscores........ For what purposes.....
.................................................................

VI. Method of scoring: Hand scored........ Machine scored........
Either........Scoring stencil........Key opposite answer.....
Scoring time per test........*Can it be scored by client?* Yes.....
No........ Weighting system used? Yes........ No.......

VII. Minimal interpretation needed:
.................. by psychologist only.
.................. by counselor with psychometric training.
.................. by an instructor with no psychological training.
.................. by client with explanation.
.................. by client without explanation.

VIII. Recommendation:
By whom recommended............................................
For what group................................................
For what purpose..............................................
Use: National (Dominion)..... State (Province)..... Local.....
References: ...................................................
.................................................................
*(On back of this sheet write a short summary)*

It is also recommended that research studies, textbooks in tests and
measurements, and Buros' "Mental Measurement Yearbooks" be con-
sulted by those people concerned with the selection of tests (*11*).

Although there are thousands of available tests, the general categories
for classification are fairly well accepted as follows: (1) scholastic
aptitude, (2) achievement, (3) special abilities or aptitudes, (4) inter-
ests, and (5) personality. In addition to these five classifications, there
are other tests constituting a minor group—such as those for study
skills, color perception, physical traits, and miscellaneous tests.

The following index of tests presents a practical and detailed listing
of types according to general categories (*50*):

A. Achievement
  1. General
  2. Reading
  3. Mathematics
  4. Science
  5. Languages
  6. English
  7. Spelling
  8. Vocabulary
  9. Grammar
  10. History
  11. Social Studies
  12. Geography
  13. Handwriting
  14. Health
  15. Home Economics
  16. Aeronautics
  17. Commerce
  18. Library Information
  19. Psychology
  20. Engineering
  21. Journalism
  22. Automobile Driving

B. Attitudes

C. Aptitudes (General Battery)
  1. Practical judgment
  2. Scientific
  3. Mechanical
      a. pen and paper
      b. manual
  4. Clerical
  5. Sales
  6. Stenography and Typing
  7. Visual tests
  8. Art
  9. Music
  10. Nursing
  11. Supervisor
  12. Vocational
  13. Medicine
  14. Educational
  15. Law
  16. Religion

D. Intelligence
  1. General mental ability
  2. Primary mental ability

E. Interests
  1. General
  2. Vocational
  3. Academic

F. Personality and Adjustment

G. Values

H. Rating Scales

I. Personal Selection
  1. College
  2. General

J. Critical Thinking

K. Preschool Readiness Test

L. Study Skills

M. Status Information

N. Concepts

We should like to give the reader an indication of the frequency of uses of various tests by guidance personnel and leave detailed descriptions of specific tests to later chapters. It is recognized that frequency of use is not always the best criterion, but it does merit some consideration when in the process of selecting tests. The following gives a summary of tests most frequently used as indicated by three studies.

TESTS USED MOST FREQUENTLY AS INDICATED BY THREE STUDIES

| Barahal (4) | Darley and Marquis (16) | Failor and Mahler (20) |
|---|---|---|
| *Scholastic Aptitude* | | |
| Ohio State | Otis series | Otis Higher |
| A.C.E. Psychological | Wechsler | A.C.E. Psychological |
| *Army General* | A.C.E. Psychological | (college) |
| Classification (AH) | Ohio State | Wechsler |
| Wechsler | | Army General |
| California | | Classification (AH) |
| Mental | | Ohio State |
| Maturity | | Revised Beta |
| Revised Alpha | | A.C.E. (H.S.) |
| | | Nelson-Denny |
| *Interest* | | |
| Kuder | Kuder | Kuder |
| Strong (Men) | Strong | Lee-Thorpe |
| Brainard | | Strong |
| Cardall | | Cardall |
| *Strong* | | |
| (Women) | | |
| Thurstone | | |
| Lee-Thorpe | | |
| Allport-Vernon | | |
| *Special Aptitudes* | | |
| Bennett Mechanical | Minnesota Clerical | Bennett Mechanical |
| Minnesota Paper | Bennett Mechanical | Minnesota Paper |
| Form Board | Minnesota Paper | Form Board |
| Minnesota Clerical | Form Board | O'Connor Finger |
| | | Dexterity |

TESTS USED MOST FREQUENTLY AS INDICATED BY THREE STUDIES—*Cont'd*

| Barahal (4) | Darley and Marquis (16) | Failor and Mahler (20) |
|---|---|---|
| | *Special Aptitudes* | |
| Engineering and Physical Science | Minnesota Spatial Relations | O'Connor Tweezer Dexterity |
| Purdue Peg Board | MacQuarrie Mechanical | Minnesota Clerical |
| Meier Art Judgment | O'Connor Finger Dexterity | Detroit Retail |
| O'Connor Tweezer Dexterity | O'Connor Tweezer Dexterity | Purdue Peg Board |
| Iowa Legal | Purdue Peg Board | Engineering and Physical Science |
| Stanford Scientific | Minnesota Rate of Manipulation | Minnesota Rate of Manipulation |
| George Washington Educational | Meier Art Judgment | Lewerenz Art |
| George Washington Medical | | Law Aptitude |
| Minnesota Spatial Relations | | Minnesota Mechanical |
| Cardall Practical Judgment | | Penn Bi-Manual |
| O'Connor Finger Dexterity | | Minnesota Spatial Relations |
| Stanford Educational | | Meier Art Judgment |
| Miscellaneous | | Medical Aptitude |
| | | Survey of Space Relations |
| | | Thurstone Clerical |
| | *Achievement* | |
| Michigan Vocabulary | Coöperative series | Cardall Arithmetic |
| Coöperative: Effectiveness of Expression | General Educational Development | Woody-McCall Arithmetic |
| Cardall Arithmetic Reasoning | Iowa Placement Series | Triggs Reading |
| Coöperative: Contemporary Affairs | Stanford Achievement | Michigan Vocabulary |
| Iowa Mathematics Training | | Coöperative Reading |
| USAFI Business Arithmetic | | Iowa Mathematics |
| G.E.D. Natural Science | | |
| G.E.D. Social Studies | | |
| G.E.D. Expression | | |
| Iowa Chemistry | | |
| Coöperative Vocabulary | | |
| Iowa English Training Materials | | |
| G.E.D. Literary | | |
| Iowa Physics Training | | |
| Coöperative: Mechanics of Expression | | |

TESTS USED MOST FREQUENTLY AS INDICATED BY THREE STUDIES—*Cont'd*

| Barahal (4) | Darley and Marquis (16) | Failor and Mahler (20) |
|---|---|---|
| | *Personality* | |
| Bell (adult) | Minnesota Multiphasic | Personal Audit |
| Minnesota Multiphasic | Bell | Bernreuter |
| Bernreuter | Bernreuter | Minnesota Multiphasic |
| Bell (student) | | California |
| | | Ascendance-Submission |
| | *Miscellaneous* | |
| Nelson-Denny Reading | | Pseudo Ishihara |
| Wrenn Study Habits | | Wrenn Study Habits |
| Iowa Silent Reading | | |

## The Administration and Scoring of Tests

The question concerning who should administer tests was discussed in the section concerning the teacher's role in the testing program. It was observed at that time that teachers will frequently administer tests but should do so only after an orientation by the counselor and a careful study of the manual of directions. However, there are a number of tests, primarily individual tests, which must be administered by a specialist. For example, such tests as the Stanford-Binet, Wechsler-Bellevue, and various projective tests require a considerable training and skill to administer and interpret adequately. Teachers will not administer such tests but will be primarily concerned with the group tests which require less training and skill.

Before actually administering the test, the person in charge should check the physical arrangements. Regardless of whether the test will be given to an individual or a group, the location should be free from outside distractions and in a room that has proper lighting, heating, and air circulation. Only by having desirable physical conditions can we hope to have optimum conditions for motivation. The testee should be provided with adequate working space for freedom and privacy of action. Where the test material includes a booklet plus an answer sheet there should be enough room available so that the student does not have to hold one or the other in his lap. It is preferable to have a flat-top table with sufficient space between individuals so there will be freedom of action and a minimum of distraction and copying.

Many students have a feeling of insecurity and anxiety before and during testing. It is the responsibility of the examiner to reduce such feelings and otherwise encourage the student to perform at full capacity. Sinick (38) offers several suggestions for reducing the anxiety of students who feel threatened by a test: (1) Proper orientation toward tests should be started at the counselor's desk. In a group testing situation, orientation is the responsibility of the person who administers the test. The introduction should be brief and clear, advising students what they are going to do, how long it will take them, and what they can expect. (2) Unwrap the mystery about tests. This may be done by explaining what the tests measure, for what purpose they are being given, and when the results can be learned. (3) Arrange the best sequence of the tests. This may be done by alternating timed and untimed tests, paper and pencils with manipulative, and visual with non-visual. Super (39: 78) suggests starting with a buffer test like the Bennett to be followed by a difficult test; and this followed with a short and pleasant one to help the examinee leave with a satisfactory attitude and feeling of achievement. The arrangement of test sequence not only requires placing the tests in the best possible order but also selecting the most appropriate test for the purposes involved. In all cases the administrator should speak in a well modulated voice, follow precisely the directions given in the manual, and adhere strictly to the time limits indicated.

The observation of the student during the testing situation frequently gives valuable clues about the student and his adjustment. Notation of attitudes, methods of attack, and manner of work can often be significant, especially if verified by subsequent observations or information.

Familiarity with the directions of the author is essential if scoring the tests is to be accurate. In some instances students may correct their own tests providing a check is made by the teacher, counselor, or psychometrist. Obviously there are some types of tests, such as intelligence and personality, that should definitely not be scored by the students. In any case, even the best of scorers will make mistakes; thus scoring should always be rechecked so that errors can be found.

## The Interpretation and Use of Tests in Counseling

As a result of an interview and an examination of the case records the counselor usually asks the counselee to take some tests for the purpose of gaining useful information in assisting the client to solve his problem. No test should be given unless there is some need or justifica-

tion for it. Too often counselors assign routinely a battery of tests that may have little bearing on the student's particular problem or situation; only those special tests that will contribute to the self-understanding of the person should be assigned.[5] The need for testing should arise out of a counseling situation; thus, tests should be assigned only as the need appears for them in the counseling interviews. Assigning tests as the need for them appears in the counseling interview is described by Super (40) as precision testing. This is more efficient than routinely assigning a battery, commonly called saturation testing. It should be kept in mind that the taking of a test may develop self-understanding *just as much as having test results interpreted.*

Should test results be given to the student? There has been much argument for and against such a practice. If we assume that tests are a means of helping an individual to understand himself and that a student needs to know his potential ability in order to clarify that understanding, then a knowledge of test results is essential. The authors recommend that when test scores are given to the student they be expressed in percentiles or in such descriptive terms as above-average or below-average. Obviously, a proper interpretation of test results requires a strong background in statistics; if the student is going to understand the meaning of his scores, they should be explained in a descriptive manner.[6] If test scores are to be given to the student by means of a written report, careful explanation should accompany the report clarifying the meanings of the factors being measured and where the pupil can receive individual interpretations of his tests. Such terms as IQ, maladjustment, and so on, should be omitted in the process of explanation.

SUGGESTIONS FOR BETTER INTERPRETATION OF TESTS

One reason for the perfunctory use of tests in the high school is that they have been difficult for the average administrator and teacher to interpret and employ. If tests are going to be used efficiently in the school, simple procedures must be developed for clarifying the interpre-

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[5] We are referring here to the uses of a test in counseling and not group testing as part of the orientation program.

[6] It is assumed that the counselor will be trained and possess the knowledge of statistics necessary for adequate test interpretation. The reader is referred to the following for an explanation of statistical procedures: (1) Roy D. Willey, *Guidance in Elementary Education*, New York, Harper & Brothers, 1952, chapter 17; and (2) H. H. Remmers, and N. L. Gage, *Educational Measurement and Evaluation*, rev. ed., New York, Harper & Brothers, 1954.

tations. A joint committee working on this problem recommends that the test manual contain the following:

1. Insofar as possible, the test, the manual, record forms, and other accompanying material should assist users to make correct interpretations of the test results.
2. The test manual should state explicitly the purposes and applications for which the test is recommended.
3. The test manual should indicate the professional qualifications required to administer and interpret the test properly.
4. When a test is issued in revised form, the nature and extent of any revision, and the comparability of data for the revised and the old test should be explicitly stated.
5. Statements in the manual reporting relationships are by implication quantitative, and should be stated as precisely as the data permit. If data to support such a statement have not been collected, the fact should be made clear (1).

When test interpretations are given in a counseling situation the counselor should: (1) give the client simple statistical predictions based on the test data, (2) allow the client to evaluate the prediction as it applies to himself, (3) remain neutral toward test data and the client's reaction, (4) facilitate the client's self-evaluation and subsequent discussions by use of the therapeutic procedures, and (5) avoid persuasive methods as test data should provide the motivation, not the counselor (8). It should be emphasized that the counselor should use test interpretation and all other techniques to facilitate the client's utilization of the information.

## COUNSELOR USES OF TESTS

The ultimate criterion for determining the value of tests is in the effective use of the results. In this section we observe some of the uses of tests in counseling and in subsequent paragraphs discuss various administrative and instructional uses of tests. Test results can benefit the counselee by indicating (49): (1) How his pattern of interests compares with the pattern of interests of successful workers in given vocations. (2) Whether his intellectual capacity will permit him to profit from further schooling,—this may help the counselor to guide the student into or away from certain courses, and provide a basis for determining whether the student is working up to capacity. (3) His areas of special aptitude. A discovery of special ability might give the student

incentive and motivation for pursuing a previously unknown area of work successfully. (4) What he has achieved in school subjects and in learning skills. The counselor will confer with the student from time to time about his achievement, and tests (along with other information) may serve as the basis for evaluating the development of the counselee. Furthermore, this information is significant in conferences with parents and provides a foundation for discussing the pupil's present and future growth in terms of plans and careers. (5) Whether there are any gross variations in his personality traits from those of his peers. Without such information it is difficult to confer with students and help them to understand their problems of adjustment. In addition to these uses, test results are used by counselors in building a case study, in conferring with teachers about individual students, and in making reports to colleges and prospective employers. It should be strongly emphasized that testing does not function of and by itself in the gathering of the information about the student. Conversely, it should not become a routine mechanical process in the action of counseling. It should function as a dynamic technique suitable to the individual in a particular situation for the purpose of aiding him to develop self-understanding. Only by this means is it serving fully its purpose in the guidance program.

ADMINISTRATOR USES OF TESTS [7]

While tests serve many purposes, it is often convenient to classify them according to the function of the various personnel of the school. In this section we shall discuss some of the uses of tests by administrators.

The administrator may use the test results to provide records of pupil achievement and progress. Test scores may be entered on the cumulative record card to serve as a basis for evaluating the growth and progress of an individual or of a class group. In addition, the administrator may use test results to strengthen reports to parents. Often the principal may desire supplementary objective evidence to sustain the teacher or justify his opinion about a student. Such evidence may be used in a conference with the parents or in a written report to them. Also, the administrative use of tests makes available more systematic and objective records when a pupil is transferred to another school. Such records are very valuable in

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[7] The outline for this section was largely taken from C. E. Skinner (ed.), *Elementary Educational Psychology*, 2nd ed., New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950, p. 390.

deciding a pupil's status, and facilitate placement in a desirable class-room in the new school. Records started when the child first enters school can follow him from one school to another within the same school system or be transferred to another school outside the system.

The administrator may also use test results to provide data for periodic reports of school progress to the community. Frequently tests are used in the classification of pupils for instructional purposes. Although learning is primarily an individual matter, students must learn in groups. The administrator may use the results of standardized tests as one means for evaluating the curriculum. Evidence gathered from measuring instruments often provides a basis for starting curriculum revision and long term educational planning.

### TEACHER USES OF TESTS

A fundamental relationship in the school is the teacher-student relationship, and the various techniques of guidance should contribute to that relationship.[8] In meeting individual and group needs and abilities, the teachers then may use test results in the following ways: (1) to discover the scholastic aptitude of the pupil and then adapt the instruction to the level of the aptitude; (2) to determine the achievement level of the student so that he may begin his training at the best place for him (by having a picture of the total achievement pattern, the teacher is able to help the student in meeting his own special needs and developing as a whole individual); (3) to discover the exceptionally bright and slow learning pupils so that special provisions may be made for them; (4) to diagnose individual pupil weaknesses and abilities in the various subjects and give remedial treatment based on the diagnosis; (5) to use tests to classify students within the schoolroom for instructional purposes; (6) to evaluate methods and techniques of teaching; and (7) to provide a basis for motivation. These uses of test results can all increase the effectiveness of the learning process and improve the teacher-student relationship.

### Test Records

In most schools test results will be recorded or at least summarized on the cumulative record. It is preferable to record the results cumulatively

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[8] Every school should have a carefully planned program for using the results of all the tests given to the pupil. One step in this direction would be to provide each teacher with a copy of the test results of students that are of particular concern to him.

on some meaningful and comparable basis such as scaled scores or percentiles. The director of guidance is usually the person in charge of recording test results, but he should be supplied with the necessary clerical help so as not to burden him or decrease his efficiency in other areas where he can be most effective. If the test results are a part of the cumulative record, they should be placed in a central location so that everyone has access to them. Because test scores are only one of several important parts of a comprehensive cumulative record, it merits additional discussion in a subsequent chapter.

## A Basic Testing Program

While it is very difficult to determine or suggest a minimum testing program for any school, we suggest a pattern of testing to cover both the elementary and secondary school. The specific program will depend upon the school, its size, location, and objectives. There is no ideal testing program that will fit all schools or all situations. As the school should not administer any more tests than necessary, it becomes most important to develop ways and means to interpret test scores and place them in the hands of individuals who can profitably use them. The following is a suggested minimum testing program:

| Grade | Time of Administration | Type of Test |
|---|---|---|
| Kindergarten | End of year | Reading readiness |
| First | Beginning of year | Mental ability |
| Second | | |
| Third | Beginning of year | Mental ability |
| Third | End of year | Tests of achievement |
| Fourth | Beginning of year | Diagnostic reading test |
| Fifth | | |
| Sixth | End of year | Tests of achievement |
| Seventh | | |
| Eighth | | |
| Ninth | Beginning of year | Interest test |
| Ninth | Beginning of year | Mental ability |
| Ninth | End of year | Tests of achievement |
| Tenth | | |
| Eleventh | End of year | Interest test |
| Twelfth | End of year | Achievement test |

The suggested program follows a basic pattern of administering an achievement test during each of the normal divisions of the child's schooling. Because the relationship between intelligence and the achievement test is high, it does not seem feasible to administer many mental

ability tests. However, achievement testing provides a desirable measure of growth of the student in various school areas and presents the developmental pattern. These test results are necessary if the teacher is going to provide meaningful experiences in the classroom and if effective guidance is going to be accomplished. The administering of an interest test should be conducted at the beginning of the ninth grade because at that point greater specialization begins in the educational process. Because interests are not stable a check should be made in the twelfth year. The above suggested program does not include aptitude or personality tests, but many schools may want to include such tests if they can administer and use them.

Many criteria are employed to determine the effectiveness of a testing program. Throughout the chapter we have discussed such criteria, but we clarify them here through summarization (43).

1. Is the testing program comprehensive? It should include various kinds of tests and give a profile of the student's strength and weaknesses.

2. Does the testing program include all of the pupils in the school? Effort should be made so that all children are tested in order to gain a more comprehensive picture.

3. Are tests given at regular intervals? If test intervals are regular, growth of the pupil will be easy to study.

4. Are tests well timed? They should be given during the year when they will be of maximum usefulness. They should be given at the beginning of the subject, or before the semester is finished.

5. Are tests in the school testing program comparable?

6. Do the tests agree with objectives and curriculum of the school?

7. Are the specific tests carefully chosen? A competent group of people should study the test and all available statistical data.

8. Are the tests carefully administered to each group? If teachers are to give the tests they should have instructions in proper administration. They should understand the purpose and value of tests and have a favorable attitude toward them.

9. Are tests scored accurately? As a rule a trained clerical staff can score a group of tests more accurately than a trained group of teachers.

10. Are test results interpreted in terms of appropriate norms? National norms are useful in the average school, but not for a remote rural area, or a college preparatory group.

11. Are test results reported quickly to teachers and counselors in understandable terms?

12. Are the test results recorded upon individual cumulative record forms?
13. Is a definite effort made to relate the test scores to other kinds of information? Test scores alone do not give a complete picture of a person; they must be considered along with other available information.
14. In addition to the regular testing program is there special testing, as needed?
15. Does the school have an in-service program for educating teachers in the use of test results? All teachers should have an understanding of test scores, class medians, and percentile ranking so that they may interpret and use the results wisely in their fields.

## SUMMARY

A variety of techniques are necessary for collecting vital information necessary for effective guidance, teaching, and learning. One very useful technique for this purpose is the standardized test. The testing program is not a guidance program but only one technique for collecting information about the student, which consequently is only one phase of the total guidance program.

Tests have assumed an important role in our school system for many reasons. Some of the outstanding arguments for their use are: (1) their impartial objective nature, (2) time saving, (3) the probability of sampling all the traits of the individual, and (4) their use in supplementing other information.

While the adequacy of any test depends upon its validity, reliability, and usability many limitations were noted in their overuse and misuse.

In beginning a testing program the following steps were suggested:

It was noted that tests should be given only when they could be put into effective use. To do this the coöperation of the teachers must be solicited.

Test records should be centrally located either in the administrator's or counselor's office. These test results should be recorded by some meaningful and comparable basis such as scaled scores or percentiles. While the director of the guidance program will usually be responsible for recording test scores, he should be supplied with the necessary clerical help so as not to overburden himself and decrease his efficiency in other areas.

A basic testing program was suggested with the statement that there is no ideal testing program to fit all schools or all situations. This program follows a basic pattern of administering achievement tests during each of the normal divisions of the school period, with an addition of an interest test during the ninth and eleventh grades. The chapter concluded by suggesting the criteria that can be used in determining the effectiveness of a testing program.

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surprising and disturbing of numerous studies that have been made to determine the reliability of teachers' grades. The most frequently cited of the early studies were those of Starch and Elliot (34), in which they used facsimile copies of the same geometry paper, which was marked by eleven high school teachers of mathematics. The values assigned ranged from 28 to 92. Thus, in mathematics, which is one of the most objective subjects, the variation from teacher to teacher is great. It is clear that objectivity of subject matter is unrelated to judging achievement in it.

Drake (8) had seven psychology teachers and advanced students majoring in psychology score a ten question essay examination. Wide discrepancies appeared among the grades given by different scorers. A paper marked as low as 52 by one scorer received 97 from another. While these scorings were highly unreliable from a numerical standpoint, they were highly reliable from a relative ranking viewpoint.

In an experiment designed to ascertain the accuracy of scoring tests by teachers, Traxler (40) found that nearly one-fifth of the items attempted were scored wrongly. The scoring was done on semi-objective tests, and emphasized the advisability of using trained scorers and of carefully checking the scoring.

Still another interesting study was made by Carter (4) who endeavored to discover the relationship between teachers' marks and the sex of the student and the teacher. He discovered a significant difference in teachers' marks in algebra even though an algebra achievement test indicated no such difference. He found that women teachers tended to give higher marks than did men teachers, and boys were given significantly lower marks than girls regardless of whether the teacher was a man or woman.

After considering the results of these studies, it appears that teachers' marks have some serious limitations. Marks represent not only the teacher's estimate of achievement in a subject but estimates of native ability, effort, interest, attitude, neatness, and so on. Even in the more apparently objective studies it is difficult to ascertain the reliability of grades from one subject to another. Nevertheless, it is unlikely that symbols can be eliminated altogether even if it were desirable. As symbols of rating of qualities and characteristics, marks can be very valuable when considered as a series of estimates by trained observers. The sincere teacher recognizes this and welcomes objective tests as a check on his own judgment.

*Relationship Between School Marks and Future Achievement*

Despite errors in specific grades, the average of all high school grades continue to provide the best single predictor of average grades in a number of colleges. Nevertheless, grades in specific high school courses, such as mathematics, correlate low with corresponding college grades. The higher correlation between average marks and success on the college level as contrasted to lower correlation on the high school level may be due to one or more of the following causes:

1. Grades are a composite measure of ability, skill in the use of that ability, willingness to work, ambition, skill in impressing teachers, and conformity to classroom discipline. It may be that grades are more of an inclusive measure of grade getting aptitudes than are psychological tests.

2. Both high school and college grades represent subjective judgment upon subtle and hidden factors; test results are objective indications of knowledge and other abilities or characteristics.

3. In the process of averaging either high school or college grades, the over-estimations of some teachers may be balanced by the under estimations of other teachers; thus the result may be a stable and valid index of prediction (44).

Because grades from different high schools can be interpreted only in terms of ability of the students who attend the school, utmost caution must be used in considering grades the indices of prediction. For example, there is a wide difference in the average from one high school to another. This was demonstrated by an investigation of over 7000 seniors in 50 Chicago high schools in which it was found that the mean scores on the American Psychological Examination varied from 65 to 220.5 points. Admitting to the University of Chicago the upper tenth of the seniors in the lowest ranked schools would have reduced the scholastic aptitude of the freshman ability.[1] The conclusion suggests precautions. While there is a definite relationship between past school marks and present achievement, the teacher or counselor should recognize possible variations and errors from subject to subject and from school to school.

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[1] Such a wide variation was found in a study by Aaron J. Brumbaugh, "The Selection and Counseling of Students at the University of Chicago," reprint from *Provisions for the Individual in College Education, Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions* (1932), 4:56.

*Relationship Between Marks and Achievement Tests*

A number of studies have shown the relationship between various subject matter achievement tests and grades received in those subjects. Kohn (23) and Gates (17) found that correlations between achievement test scores in particular subjects and class grades in that subject usually ranged from .42 to .70. The prediction of algebra and geometry grades from arithmetic tests is usually in the neighborhood of .50; from special aptitude tests .55; and from special aptitude and English comprehension combined .60 (1).

The prediction of class grades in a particular course from grades in an earlier course in the same field range from approximately .40 to .70 in the usual school or college group. Williamson (45) noted a tendency for the accuracy of scholastic prediction from previous grades to decrease as one moved up the educational ladder.

These and other studies would indicate that the mean correlation coefficient between achievement and school marks will range in the neighborhood of .50 to .55. These relationships are as high as, if not higher than, those which exist between grades in the same curriculum area. While the relationship is by no means perfect, the correlations are certainly high enough to warrant the use of achievement tests in evaluating and supplementing teachers' grades.

*Relationship Between Marks and Intelligence*

The large number of research studies conducted on these variables indicates the widespread interest in the topic. The purpose of such investigations is to find data that can be used for prediction in counseling and guidance. Predictions of an average general scholastic achievement from a group verbal intelligence test is usually near .70 for elementary school groups but considerably lower for high school and college groups (21). The median of over 100 correlations of general college scholarships and general mental tests was .44, according to Segel (32) who made an extensive review of studies on the subject.

Durflinger (10) compiled studies concerning prediction of college success and found a correlation of .52 and .475 between intelligence tests, content examinations, and college scholarships respectively. The results of these various studies would indicate that the relationship between intelligence and marks would range from .40 to .55. In a few cases some correlations may be higher or lower than this. In all cases

where intelligence or achievement test results have been combined with previous grade point average and correlated against grades, the resulting multiple correlation coefficients are higher. Thus, the use of two variables in prediction will increase the efficiency of that prediction.

## TESTS AS INDICATORS OF ACHIEVEMENT

### Strengths of Achievement Tests

Notwithstanding the criticisms of teacher-constructed tests, it is neither possible nor desirable to eliminate them. Fortunately, standardized achievement tests correct some of the faults of teachers' tests and supplement well the teacher's grades in determining the total achievement of the child. Some of the values of these tests are:

1. They are a valid measure of achievement. The tests are constructed by a subject matter specialist who searches through many textbooks, course outlines, and other teaching materials to select items that measure objectives of education. These experts know how to phrase these items so that they will be most useful in their measurement.
2. Because of their objectivity they are a reliable measuring instrument; that is, they measure consistently from one time to another.
3. They are accurately and objectively scored. A definite answer is required and the method for obtaining the score is always given. This eliminates interests, opinions, and other subjective factors which tend to reduce the validity of any measuring instrument.
4. Because the examiner is requested to follow directions precisely, they are easy to administer.
5. Standardized achievement tests are the result of experimentation and thorough revision.
6. The tests are accompanied by a set of either age or grade norms, useful and necessary for interpretation. Such norms provide a means of comparison from one group of students to another, from one class to another, or from one school to another.

The strength of achievement tests which justify their use in the guidance program lies in the methods used in developing them, their objectivity, and the means for their interpretation.

### Limitations of Achievement Tests

The limitations of standardized achievement tests are inherent not in the tests themselves but rather in the ease of misinterpreting their results. The major criticisms of any objective examination are these:

1. Their use frequently leads to undesirable forms of study habits; that is, to a memorizing of facts with little regard for context.
2. Since no opportunity is provided for elaborations in meaning, the use of objective tests encourage uncritical and somewhat dogmatic thinking.
3. It is difficult to formulate a basis for judging the extent to which students have organized their knowledge into major units or have grasped relations and meaning.
4. In many cases the instructors who prepare these examinations are not skilled in formulating questions of this kind.

Many limitations in the use of standardized achievement tests have no relationship to the construction, validity, or reliability of the tests themselves. Some of these limitations are:

1. Tests can give the teacher an inaccurate impression of the child. Without realizing that the total behavior pattern has not been measured, some teachers may refuse to teach a child who has a low score in one trait.
2. Tests are misleading in their ease of administration and interpretation. While classroom teachers can administer standardized tests, they often misinterpret the results of such tests and disregard the manual of directions.
3. Because standardized tests are often restricted to factual items to the exclusion of items requiring judgment and critical thinking, many vital aims of education are not measured at all.
4. Standardized testing can repress teacher initiative. If the teacher's ability is measured in terms of test results, he may often resort to drilling on subject matter on which the tests are based.
5. The use of norms has often defeated the purpose for which they were made. Their value lies in their means of comparing the progress of any given pupil or group of pupils and not in providing the goal that all pupils should obtain (43).

While it should be recognized that achievement tests have both strengths and weaknesses, they are still valuable indices of achievement. When properly used, they supplement other signs of accomplishment and can be very helpful in bringing about optimum adjustment for the student.

## What Achievement Tests Are Available

Because of the large number of available achievement tests, it is impossible to describe all of them. The fields of social studies and natural science alone account for about five hundred published tests (41). A

description of selected sampling of well-constructed tests suitable for use in the elementary and secondary schools follows. These brief descriptions should provide some understanding of achievement tests along with suitable criteria for selection.

## Coöperative Achievement Tests

A wide variety of survey and selected subject-matter tests in such fields as English, foreign languages, mathematics, science, and social studies, constitute the Coöperative Test Division's publications. Tests appropriate for high school and for college students are available. Publishers' catalogs list specific tests currently available.

*Reliability:* Reliability is reported in terms of the standard error of measurement for each test. The reliability coefficients for the ages or grades in question are generally above .90.

*Validity:* Items for the test were selected after an analysis of textbooks and curricula and are revised by specialists in the subject-matter field. Validity must be determined locally.

*Norms:* Scaled scores are provided for most of the Coöperative Tests. By using scaled-score norms a student's performance can be compared with that of other pupils throughout the country and with his own achievement in other subjects if he has had typical instruction and the usual amount of training at the level at which the test is ordinarily given. Percentile ranks by grades are also available.

*Authors:*    Selected specialist in each subject-matter field.

*Publisher:*    Coöperative Test Division,
Educational Testing Service,
Princeton, New Jersey

## Iowa Tests of Educational Development

This battery of tests, designed as a comprehensive measure of achievement of secondary school (last half of grade 8 through first half of grade 13) students, emphasizes functional outcomes in general education rather than specific subject-matter areas. The nine areas measured are: Understanding of Basic Social Concepts, General Background in the Natural Sciences, Correctness and Appropriateness of Expression, Quantitative Thinking, Interpretation of Reading Materials in the Social Studies, Interpretation of Reading Materials in the Natural Sciences, Interpretation of Literary Materials, General Vocabulary, and Use of Sources of Information. The complete test battery edition is rented; the

rental fee covering the scoring and preparation of individual student profiles. Each test is also available on a purchase basis as a separate booklet with hand-scored answer pads or machine-scored answer sheets.

*Reliability:* According to the manual the reliability of each of the Iowa Tests of Educational Development is approximately .91 for a representative sample of students in a single grade.

*Validity:* Substantial correlations were found between average school marks and test scores for students in various grades in high school. The manual also states: "Scores on individual tests, in general, correlate more highly with marks in related subjects than does the composite score with average marks." However, validity should be determined by each school in terms of how well the test measures the results of its own instruction as related to instructional objectives.

*Norms:* Percentile norms are available for each semester in the grade covered.

*Authors:* Prepared under the direction of E. F. Lindquist.

*Publisher:* Science Research Associates,
    57 West Grand Avenue,
    Chicago 10, Illinois.

### Metropolitan Achievement Tests

The tests are designed to measure achievement in subjects commonly taught in grades 1 through 8 and the first half of grade 9. Five batteries are available in three to five different forms. The manual discusses the Metropolitan Achievement Test and also contains an excellent general discussion of achievement testing.

*Reliability:* Reliability coefficients of the various tests differ considerably, ranging from .80 to .97. Apparently the tests have satisfactory reliability.

*Validity:* Items are drawn from representative courses of study and textbooks and an item analysis, based on extensive preliminary administration of the test, preceded the construction of the forms used in the standardization testing program. As in other comparable tests, however, the validity of this battery as a measure of achievement of current instruction must be determined locally.

*Norms:* Grade and age equivalents, modal age-grade norms, and percentile ranks are available. Special norms according to locality and size are given for certain kinds of schools. The publisher will furnish additional information upon request.

*Authors:* R. D. Allen, H. H. Bixler, W. L. Connor, F. B. Graham, and Gertrude H. Hildreth.
*Publisher:* World Book Company,
　　　　　Yonkers-on-Hudson 5, New York

## California Achievement Test Batteries

Three batteries are available, each composed of tests in the areas of reading, mathematics, and language. Each area is measured by two subtests. The reliability of each of these sub-tests, however, is probably insufficient to warrant their use for individual diagnosis. Nevertheless, scores for each of the major areas are sufficiently reliable for general guidance purposes. Different batteries are available for testing achievement in grade 1 through grade 14.

*Reliability:* Reliability coefficients of .92 or above were obtained for each of the three area tests. Sub-tests reliability coefficients are reported in the manual.

*Validity:* Validity is based on the careful selection of items that represent the most tangible and easily identifiable objectives of the curriculum. The manual states: "Scores on this test will show the mastery of the fundamental skills by the student in terms of grade placement and percentiles achieved by the population used in standardizing these tests."

*Norms:* Grade-age and percentile norms are provided in the manual.
*Authors:* E. W. Tiegs and W. W. Clark.
*Publisher:* California Test Bureau,
　　　　　5916 Hollywood Boulevard,
　　　　　Los Angeles, California.

## Stanford Achievement Test

These tests are a measure of subject-matter achievement in grades two through nine. Three batteries, each covering approximately three grades, are available with five equivalent forms.

*Reliability:* Reliability coefficients range from .96 and above for single grade levels for the various batteries. Although some individual tests are not as reliable as the battery of which they are a part, their reliability appears to be satisfactory for guidance purposes.

*Validity:* Items were selected to include the important elements in each subject-matter field of the modern curriculum. An extensive statis-

tical evaluation of a large number of varied items was made before the test was standardized. Each local school should determine the validity of this test as it applies to its own curriculum.

*Norms:* Two types of grade equivalent norms are available: (1) norms based on groups from which accelerated and retarded pupils have been removed, and (2) traditional norms based on all students in the population tested.

*Authors:* T. L. Kelley, G. M. Ruch, L. M. Terman, R. Madden, and E. F. Gardner.

*Publisher:* World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson 5, New York.

## WHEN SHOULD ACHIEVEMENT TESTS BE GIVEN?

Many practical problems arise when attempts are made to measure achievement. How often should achievement tests be given? Should they be given at the beginning of the year or at the end of the year? Should a test be given to everybody or to a certain group? These are some of the questions which should be answered before any testing program is initiated.

No one set of rules for giving achievement tests will satisfy all situations. The time for administering the tests will depend upon the purposes for which they are given. If the achievement measure is to be used for evaluation, the logical time for the test would be at the end of the year. On the other hand, if the purpose is diagnostic, it may be more helpful to give it at the beginning of the academic year.

Some general agreement exists that achievement tests should be given to all pupils at each of the major levels of educational attainment. This requires the administering of an achievement battery during the primary grades, intermediate grades, junior high school, and high school. Accordingly, proposed achievement testing program should include tests at the third, sixth, ninth, and twelfth grades. Other tests of achievement may be administered to individuals as the need arises.

## PRACTICAL USES OF ACHIEVEMENT TEST RESULTS

At the beginning of this chapter we noted some of the general purposes of achievement measurement. In this section we shall be concerned with more specific uses of achievement test results by administrators, teachers, and counselors.

*Administrator Uses*

The administrator may use achievement test results for:

1. Planning of curricular revision. Tyler *(42)* in pointing up some of the values of achievement tests in curricular construction, suggests that achievement tests can be used in:
   (a) determining how well students are achieving educational objectives; this should help the administrator clarify school objectives;
   (b) helping discover the type of learning experiences most valuable in obtaining the objectives;
   (c) helping decide the organization of those learning experiences; and
   (d) helping evaluate in order to revise and improve the continuing phases of curriculum building.
2. Grouping pupils to facilitate instructions within the class by decreasing of individual differences.
3. Helping to initiate instructional and remedial programs.
4. Making a contribution to in-service teachers by assisting the school staff to get a better understanding of the needs of pupils with whom they are concerned.
5. Using the results of achievement tests in interpreting the school program to the community by:
   (a) *aiding parents to recognize* the strength and weaknesses of their child;
   (b) urging parents to use this knowledge in directing their child toward obtainable objectives;
   (c) influencing parents to withdraw pressures from impossible or undesirable objectives;
   (d) helping parents to recognize the value of parent-school coöperation regarding the child *(15)*.

*Teacher Uses*

The teacher has the greatest responsibility in the use of achievement test results because he is in such close touch with the child. The teacher can use the results of achievement tests for *(28)* :

1. understanding the range of abilities in achievement in his classroom;
2. selecting materials of appropriateness for this range of abilities and achievement;
3. organization of groups for each of the activities of the class;
4. locating certain difficulties which indicate the need for drill and added emphasis; and

5. identifying children whose differences from the group will require special study, e.g., an under-achiever.

In addition, the teacher may employ achievement tests to determine the probable level of accomplishment of a child in a special subject area; to check the development or growth of a pupil during the school year; or to study the test result as a basis for discovering better methods of teaching (9).

## Counselor Uses

As the key individual in the entire guidance program, the counselor should be able to make maximum use of achievement tests. Some of these uses are:

1. Diagnosing pupils' strengths and weaknesses so that counseling may be beneficial in regard to (29):
   (a) choice and placement in curriculum and courses
   (b) a better understanding of the individual's academic program and school adjustment
   (c) making a more adequate long term educational and vocational plan
   (d) helping the pupils in job placement whereby they will have the best chance of success
   (e) aiding an individual to determine whether he should choose college or other programs of adjustment training.
2. Helping to place new students just entering the school system. The counselor should transfer such material to other schools when pupils leave.
3. Assisting the counselor to converse with teachers about individual pupils.
4. Providing data for case studies.
5. Using test results in reporting information to colleges and prospective employers.

## Caution in the Use of Achievement Test Resutls

It is imperative to remember that any test represents but a sampling of the total possible performance of the individual. Often this sampling is subject to error and should, therefore, be observed with caution. Some of these cautions are:

1. Errors of measurement may invalidate a test score.
2. The scores of some inventories (personality and others) may not be as valid as those secured from other tests.

3. It is frequently more appropriate to compare a student's attainment with his own ability than to compare him with another.
4. All test data should be regarded as confidential. Good professional judgment, sincerity, and tact should prevail in the interpretation of all test results.

## OBSERVATION AS AN INDICATION OF ACHIEVEMENT

In our discussion thus far we have considered school marks and tests as media for determining pupil achievement. Teachers are well aware that in many cases they can judge the achievement level of the pupil without access to tests. That a more accurate picture of the pupils' achievement can be obtained, every teacher should be concerned with the improvement of his observations and his method of recording them. Strang (35) suggests the following kinds of behavior that may be observed in the classroom as indicative of ability and achievement:

1. Rapidity with which students comprehend printed material.
2. Rapidity, accuracy, and expression in oral reading. The teacher should note the vocabulary, ability to think intelligently about what is read, and indications of weaknesses and strengths in other subjects.
3. Kind and number of questions asked. Notes should be taken of the relevance of the questions to the discussion, originality of questions, and indications of whether the student comprehended the salient points of the discussion.
4. The student's eagerness to answer many questions or the tendency to answer only when called upon.
5. An indication of any deficiency of one or more skills when compared with other students in the class.

Although these observations are often used in determining school marks, a record is kept less frequently. Inasmuch as teachers forget the details of observation, the maximum usefulness of anecdotal observations remain unrealized. It is imperative, therefore, that some method be devised for recording and filing them. Anecdotal observations, tests, and school marks are inter-independent factors in measuring achievement; all contribute to the total picture of the total achievement of the child.

### *Who Should Gather Indices of Achievement?*

The responsibilities of the administrator, teacher, and counselor will be discussed in this section.

## ADMINISTRATOR RESPONSIBILITIES

In the administrator of the school is found the necessary leadership for assembling and interpreting achievement data. Through his initiative, funds are provided for purchasing the tests, for administering them, for scoring, and for interpreting the results.

With good administration the school should have an adequate record system to include school marks, achievement test scores, anecdotal behavioral descriptions; in fact, all possible data which indicate growth (or lack of growth) for each student. Through the administrator's encouragement, teachers continuously evaluate their method of marking. In summary, the administrator's responsibility is mainly concerned with providing leadership, funds, and the opportunity for gathering, recording, and disseminating achievement data.

## TEACHER RESPONSIBILITIES

The responsibility for giving, scoring, and recording group tests usually lies with the classroom teacher. With the counselor, who frequently serves as an advisor, teachers may meet in groups to receive training for these tasks.

Because it is his responsibility in most schools to devise school marks for each of his pupils, the teacher should use every possible medium to facilitate the marking system. The more accurate and meaningful the formal or informal observation, the more useful it will be in assisting both pupil and teacher.

## COUNSELOR RESPONSIBILITIES

The counselor's role in achievement testing lies in his responsibility for the entire testing program of the school. It is he who gives advice in selecting the tests, who assists teachers to administer the tests, who provides his services in the interpretation of results. In many cases the counselor may be responsible for recording the test results on the student's record and making an analysis of the scores for future counseling or curriculum revision.

The counselor should not have to spend his time to record school marks or observation data. On the other hand, much of his time should be absorbed in the interpretation and use of that data. The effectiveness to which data are employed for student adjustment will depend pri-

marily upon the counselor's ability to interpret and disseminate such information.

## SUMMARY

Essential to both education and guidance are well-constructed instruments of measurements to determine the degree to which objectives are being realized. A second purpose of achievement measurement is the diagnostic purpose in which the teacher and guidance worker can determine the strength and weakness of each student. With this knowledge the guidance worker can counsel a student in areas where he has the best chance of succeeding and assist him to plan to take additional training in those areas where deficiencies appear. A third purpose of achievement measurement is to provide data from which can be made predictions of future achievement. The use of prediction scales can provide a means of placing students within an appropriate curriculum.

Traditionally, the symbol of school achievement has been the teacher's mark. The numerous studies made of teachers' marks indicate that marks are neither very reliable nor valid. Nevertheless, they will probably continue to be the most frequently used symbols of achievement because they represent the best judgment of teachers who supposedly know the child's ability, effort, interest, attitude, and neatness, as well as what he has learned. If teachers are properly trained, marks can be very valuable as a series of estimates, providing they are given by several people who have taught the student. Overestimates of some teachers, for example, may be balanced by the underestimates of other teachers.

One way to improve the reliability and validity of teachers' marks is to base them largely on the results of standardized achievement tests, providing such tests have been constructed or chosen in terms of what teachers have decided should be learned. Standardized achievement tests, however, do not measure many of the vital aims of education, and other more subjective instruments of evaluation must also be employed by teachers. When used with discretion they support other indices of achievement and can be very helpful in bringing about optimum adjustment for the student.

Achievement tests are given to serve definite purposes. For example, if the achievement measure is to be for evaluation purposes, the logical time to give the test would be at the end of the year. However, if the purpose of achievement measurement is diagnostic, it may be more helpful to give the test at the beginning of the year. If guidance is a purpose

of the test, then it could be either administered at the beginning or at the end of the year depending upon the specific use for which it is intended.

Of the more practical uses of the achievement test, the following examples were listed: (1) planning of curricular revision, (2) grouping pupils for instruction (especially within the classroom), (3) planning a remedial program, (4) providing a medium for in-service training of teachers, (5) interpreting the school program to the community, (6) selecting material and school activities to fit the student, (7) counseling students in making choices, (8) placing the student in a vocation, (9) helping the student to choose a school for further education.

An achievement test can sample only a part or parts of total behavior of the individual. Good judgment, sincerity, and tact should, therefore, prevail in all interpretation of test results. Observations, tests, and school marks are not independent factors in measuring the student's endeavors but should be used as supplements to each other in acquiring an evaluation of his total achievement.

The administrator should provide financial means, leadership in gathering achievement measures, an adequate record system of test results, and an opportunity to disseminate and interpret test data. The teacher should become skilled in giving, scoring, and recording achievement tests. It is also the teacher's responsibility to supplement test data, to assist in the selection of the test, and to give assistance in administration and interpretation. The extent to which the data gathered will benefit student adjustment will depend upon the skill of the counselor.

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# The Measurement of Aptitudes

## WHAT IS AN APTITUDE?

"SALLY is a natural born artist," "Johnny has a talent for drawing," "Mary has a gift for music," "Tommy is a genius at mechanics" are frequent phrases in our conversations. Such statements imply that each of the students has a particular gift or talent that is not common to all people. These gifts are usually referred to as aptitudes and play a very important role in the development of the child. If these traits can be defined adequately, and measured accurately, then the teacher, counselor, and administrator can help provide an environment which will foster the maximum development of such talents.

Much confusion exists concerning the definition of an aptitude. The discord apparently centers around two concepts. First, is an aptitude acquired or inborn? and second, is it a single unitary trait or a combination of traits? Bingham prepared a definition of aptitude for Warren's *Dictionary of Psychology* (53) which states, "Aptitude—a condition or set of characteristics regarded as symptomatic of an individual's ability to acquire with training some (usually specified) knowledge, skill, or set of responses such as the ability to speak a language, to produce music, etc." This definition implies that an aptitude is not a unitary trait but a combination of traits, and the specificity of the traits may be different from one aptitude to another. The question of whether an aptitude is acquired or inborn is not specifically stated, but one might assume that it is an unlearned potential for acquiring a trait with learning. However, Bingham further clarifies this when he says (9):

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Whether he was born that way, or acquired certain enduring dispositions in his earliest infancy, or matured under circumstances which have radically altered his original capacities is, to be sure, a question not only of great theoretical interest but of profound importance to society at large. . . . But it is of little practical moment to the individual himself at a time when he has already reached the stage of educational and occupational planning. His potentialities at that period of his development are quite certainly the products of interaction between conditions both innate and environmental.

Therefore, it is not of immediate concern to the counselor whether the aptitude is unlearned or acquired, but rather whether the potential is present in the student for the particular field of work he desires to pursue.

The use of such terms as abilities, skills, and achievements in relation to or with aptitude has added to the confusion of definition. When such terms have not been carefully clarified many laymen and counselors use them interchangeably. Hahn and MacLean (21:181) give a very concise definition of aptitudes: "Aptitudes are correctly referred to as latent, potential, undeveloped capacities to acquire abilities and skills and to demonstrate achievements." This substantiates Bingham's definition and further clarifies other terms by indicating that skills and abilities are the result of aptitude training and that achievements are the products of those aptitudes and skills.

Thus far, aptitudes have been presented as a combination-of-traits rather than a single unitary characteristic. On the other hand, Super (48:60–61) feels that it would be more useful to define an aptitude in terms of a constant unitary trait that would facilitate the learning of some activity. This would certainly lead to more precision in definition and perhaps aid scientific assessment, but the facts remain that our present techniques of measurement do not measure unitary traits. Thus his point is more concerned with a theoretical rather than a practical standpoint.

From the standpoint of the person who is going to help guide the student in his development, it is important to understand that an aptitude is the capacity, usually undeveloped, to learn a skill(s) and ability(ies) necessary for success in a particular area of work. Many factors influence the development of an aptitude, probably greatest among them is attitude itself. However, if the different aptitudes can be classified for the purpose of description and providing a reference

for measurement, then they can be of tremendous value in guidance and counseling. In the next section we should like to discuss several types of classification that have been used in aptitude measurement.

## CLASSIFICATION OF APTITUDES

So that a systematic approach can be used in guiding pupils into those areas where they have the greatest chance for success, it is often necessary to categorize traits or aptitudes that are related to success in certain occupations. Because there are approximately 40,000 named occupations in the United States, it would be impossible for a counselor to know each distinguishing mark for each occupation. Therefore, the concept of job families has been developed. A job family is a group of related occupations that require similar aptitudes and abilities for their successful pursuance. Classifying occupations in terms of the aptitudes necessary for successful performance provides an adequate base for effective counseling.

Since the 1920's there has been a growing recognition of the need for measures of intelligence that included many aspects. The research and theories of Thorndike, Kelley, Spearman, Thurstone, and others have made us increasingly aware that so-called intelligence is not a unitary trait, but a combination of many traits found in varying degrees in different individuals. Kelley (25) used factor analysis in an early attempt to determine the number of aptitudes and concluded that they could be classified as verbal, numerical, spatial, motor, musical, social, and mechanical. Since that time several studies have been conducted with the most extensive work being done by Thurstone at Chicago. He used factor analysis to develop a series of tests designed to be more nearly "pure" or homogeneous measures of such talents as verbal facility, perceptual abilities, memory, and inductive ability. Thurstone named these traits "primary abilities" because he believed them to be fairly independent of each other and to compose some of the basic elements of abstract intelligence. Since Thurstone's work, other factor analysis studies have been made using a wider variety of tests. The table on page 197 presents a comparison of two studies with Thurstone's original work.

The impressive thing to be noted is that as better and more refined measures become available, the greater the number of aptitudes that are discovered. This suggests that additional aptitudes will be identified as greater precision instruments become available. While the table on

THE EXPANDING LIST OF PRIMARY ABILITIES

| *Thurstone 1938 (51)* | *USES (Shartle, 1945) (41)* | *A. A. F. (Guilford, 1947) (19)* |
|---|---|---|
| Spatial | Spatial | Spatial Relations I |
| | | Spatial Relations II (Right-Left Discrimination) |
| | | Spatial Relations III (Unknown) |
| | | Visualization |
| | | Mechanical Experience |
| Perceptual Speed | Symbol Perception | Perceptual Speed |
| | Spatial Perception | Length Estimation |
| Number | Numerical | Numerical |
| | | Mathematical Background |
| Verbal Relations | Verbal | Verbal |
| Word Forms | | |
| Memory Span | | Paired Associates Memory |
| | | Visual Memory |
| | | Picture-Word Memory |
| Induction | | |
| | Intelligence | General Reasoning |
| Reasoning or Deduction Logic | | Analogic Reasoning |
| | | Sequential Reasoning |
| | | Judgment |
| | | Planning |
| | | Simple Integration |
| | | Complex Integration |
| | | Adaptive Integration |
| | Speed | |

| Aptitudes or Ability Description | Levels | Occupational Outlets |
|---|---|---|
| *Academic:* The ability to understand and manage ideas and symbols. | Professional, semi-professional, and executive occupations | Lawyers, college president, president of a large manufacturing concern, executive of a moderately large business, veterinary doctor, high school teacher |
| | Technical, clerical, supervisory occupations | Minor executive (foreman, department head) or highly technical job often involving dealing with abstract classifications and details, such as railroad clerk, some retail dealers, photographer, telegrapher, shop foreman, stenographer |
| | Skilled tradesman and low-grade clerical workers | Auto mechanic, stationary engineer, file clerk, typist |
| | Semiskilled and unskilled occupations | Packer in factory, operative in factory (operates machines but does not understand principles and is unable to repair or set up the machine), lowest grades of clerical work (number sorter, deliveryman), routine manual work under supervision requiring no skill or technical knowledge (day laborer, railroad section hand, etc.) |
| *Mechanical:* Includes both the ability to manipulate concrete objects—to work tools and machinery and the materials of the physical world—and the ability to deal mentally with mechanical movements. | Professional and higher technological | Inventive mechanical genius, machine designer, mechanical engineer, master mechanic, toolmaker, civil engineer, electrical engineer |
| | Skilled tradesman, high level | Draftsman, engraver, general auto mechanic, bricklayer |

| Aptitudes or Ability Description | Levels | Occupational Outlets |
|---|---|---|
| Ability to deal with two- and three-dimensional space problems appears to be basic. | Skilled tradesman, low level | Boilermaker, tire repairer, cobbler |
| | Semiskilled and unskilled | Telephone operator, wrapper, bench assembly worker, day laborer, street sweeper |
| *Social intelligence:* The ability to understand and manage people—to act wisely in human relations | Persuasive | Politician, life insurance salesman, bond salesman, minister, social service worker |
| | Administrative | Executive, factory manager, foreman, lawyer, physician, secretary, correspondence clerk |
| | Business contact and service | Sales clerk, information clerk, hotel clerk, theater usher, telephone salesman, demonstrator |
| | Rank-and-file workers and non-social occupations | Day laborer, factory worker, office clerk, watchmaker, bookkeeper, night watchman, mathematician, technical laboratory research worker |
| *Clerical:* The ability to do rapidly and accurately detail work such as checking, measuring, classifying, computing, recording, proofreading, and similar activities. | Professional and higher technical | Accountant, actuary, statistician, secretary, bank teller |
| | Technical | Bookkeeper, stenographer, calculating machine operator, railway mail clerk |
| | Routine level | File clerk, office mail clerk, mimeograph operator, retail sales clerk, messenger |
| | Non-clerical | Plumber, aviation mechanic |

| Aptitudes or Ability Description | Levels | Occupational Outlets |
|---|---|---|
| *Musical:* The capacity to sense sounds, to image these sounds in reproductive and creative imagination, to be aroused by them emotionally, to be capable of sustained thinking in terms of these experiences, and, ordinarily, to give some form of expression in musical performance or in creative music. | Creative and interpretive and higher professional | Composer, concert artist, symphony conductor, soloist in symphony orchestra, director of famous choir, teacher in conservatory or in university |
| | Technical and lower professional | Arranger of music, music critic, player in dance orchestra, music teacher (in grade or high school) |
| | General and mechanical | Retail dealer in music, clerk in a music store, repairman of musical instruments, instrument tester in a factory |
| | Non-musical | Lawyer, day laborer |
| *Artistic:* The capacity to create forms of artistic merit and the capacity to recognize the comparative merits of forms already created. | Professional | Sculptor, artist, etcher, architect, teacher in art institute or university art department |
| | Commercial art work | Magazine illustrator, interior decorator, clothing designer, landscape gardener, advertising layout work |
| | Crafts and mechanical art work | Potter, draftsman, weaver, sign and poster painter |
| | Non-artistic | Lawyer, bookkeeper, paperhanger, house painter |
| *Physical:* The ability to control bodily agility movements by use of large and small muscle groups usually involving an element of gross strength in such a way that bodily movements | Professional athlete | Professional baseball player, professional football player, outstanding billiard player, ballet dancer, gymnast, ship rigger, steeplejack, structural steel worker |

| Aptitudes or Ability<br>Description | Levels | Occupational Outlets |
|---|---|---|
| are closely synchronized, efficient, and rapid. | High-level physical work | Chauffeur of taxi or bus, electrician, railroad fireman, fire fighter, lineman, machinist, oil-well driller, plumber, farm hand, sawmill worker, truck driver, policeman |
| | Physically active types of work | Paperhanger, stock clerk, dairy hand, gardener |
| | Non-physical, sedentary | Lawyer, bookkeeper, interviewer, power sewing machine operator |

in them. Such a classification has been attempted by a group of psychologists and has recently been revised (36). They point out that it is impossible to validate ability ratings empirically for all the available occupations today; therefore, they used the pooled judgments of a group of psychologists to identify seven basic aptitudes. These psychologists rated 432 occupations according to the amount of each of the basic aptitudes necessary for success in them. The Minnesota Occupational Rating Scales have been used since 1941 and have contributed greatly in assisting the counselor to identify occupational requirements. The revision of the scales include the classifications given on pages 198–201 (36:18–23).

It is not our purpose to discuss all the aptitudes and all the methods used for measuring them. We should like to refer, however, to aptitudes most frequently considered in guidance programs, especially those that have been amenable to measurement; namely, the scholastic, mechanical, and clerical. It is appropriate at this time to emphasize that a variety of sources of information and test results are necessary to discover the aptitudes of a student. This will provide a precaution against extending beyond the boundaries of current measuring instruments.

## SCHOLASTIC APTITUDE

*What Is It?*

Various terms are used interchangeably to designate this particular aptitude: among them are intelligence, academic ability, and mental ability. Intelligence, as explained in foregoing paragraphs, is not a

single unitary factor but a complex of several abilities. For the past fifty years psychologists have been attempting to define and determine theoretically the composition of intelligence. Garrett (18) defines intelligence as ". . . the abilities demanded in the solution of problems which require the comprehension and use of symbols." In this definition it is recognized that intelligence is a multitrait and is concerned with the individual's ability to manage abstract learnings. Stoddard (45) offers a further breakdown of the concept by describing the activities that are involved. Thus, "Intelligence is the ability to undertake activities that are characterized by (1) difficulty, (2) complexity, (3) abstractness, (4) economy, (5) adaptiveness to a goal, (6) social value, and (7) the emergence of originals; and to maintain such activities under conditions that demand a concentration of energy and a resistance to emotional forces." Both of these definitions recognize the multiplicity of abilities and deal with concepts that are of an abstract nature.

From a practical standpoint we should like to limit our discussion to the concept that scholastic aptitude is the ability to learn in a school situation. Primarily this includes the ability to manage ideas, concepts, and symbols from books. The guidance worker is concerned with the measurement of scholastic aptitude in order to help the student select both a curriculum and extra curricular activities appropriate for him. The teacher is concerned with a knowledge of this aptitude for the purpose of providing meaningful activities to the student. Because intelligence is composed of a multiplicity of abilities, no school staff member should label a student as potentially hopeless or potentially successful when judgment is based on a total score or on the basis of information from a single trait.

Practice preceded theory in the field of intelligence testing. In 1904 the Minister of Public Instruction in France was interested in finding ways of teaching the feeble-minded children. A. Binet, a psychologist, and T. Simon, a physician, were asked to devise a test that would identify such children. Binet prepared a test containing carefully selected problem situations that could be accurately scored. He published his first scale with Simon in 1905, revised it in 1908 and again in 1911. Binet expressed the results of his tests in terms of the age at which normal children could make an equivalent score. This gave rise to the concept of *mental age*. For example, if a child earned a score on the test that was earned by the average 6-year-old child, he was said to have a mental age of six even though his chronological age may have

been above or below that age level. Thus, the test was scaled at different levels of difficulty according to the mental age of the standardized group. In other words, certain problems were grouped at the 5-year level, some at the 6-year level, some at the 7-year level, and so on. The problems were grouped at each age level because it was found that the average child at that age could successfully solve the majority of them.

L. M. Terman of Stanford University took Binet's materials, tried them out on a number of American children, and in 1916 published the Stanford Revision of the Binet tests. In 1937, after correcting and improving it on the basis of 20 years' experience, Terman and Merrill published a revision of the earlier 1916 revision.

This very brief review of the history of the development of the intelligence test points out that much of the intelligence measurement developed out of a practical need even before much consideration was given to its composition. Doubtlessly, if the composition of intelligence had been known, much time could have been saved and many errors avoided, but frequently the needs of education must be satisfied before an adequate theory has been formulated.

## *What Is the Meaning of the IQ?*

Early in the history of intelligence tests, psychologists adopted the practice of stating the relationship between mental age (Binet's concept) and chronological age as a ratio (43). This ratio, invented by Stern, a German psychologist, gives a figure which remains relatively constant over a period of years. Because of this constancy one can compare individuals of different ages on an intelligence test or the same individual at different ages. Terman called this ratio the Intelligence Quotient (IQ) in his use of the 1916 Stanford Revision. The formula for the IQ is $IQ = \frac{MA}{CA} \times 100$. The multiplication by 100 eliminates fractions and decimals, making the IQ figure in terms of a whole number. Since a peak is reached in the growth of intelligence somewhere between the ages of 13–20, a correction has to be made in the chronological age if an IQ in adulthood is going to be comparable to that of earlier ages. In other words, if mental age ceases to increase after about the age of 16, then a correction has to be made in the chronological age, if the IQ is going to remain constant.

There has been much discussion concerning the constancy of the IQ. One group of scholars feels that education, home background, and

opportunity affect the IQ, while another group believes that the IQ will tend to remain relatively constant with the slight changes from one test to another being primarily the results of the testing situation. An examination of a number of studies reveals that except for tests on very young children the IQ does remain relatively constant when environmental conditions remain the same, that is, when health, type of education, and home situation do not change markedly. When these conditions do change markedly then we may have a corresponding change in the IQ.

With the realization of the multifactors in intelligence rather than a single, general intelligence, the principle of the IQ has perhaps lost some of its value but continues to be a highly useful concept. This is partially true because the idea of IQ is still firmly entrenched in the thinking of educational personnel and parents. Furthermore, most of the researchers in the area of intelligence have employed mental age and intelligence quotients in their studies rather than the multiplicity of factors that are emerging today. Professional guidance workers should be concerned with understanding the various factors involved in scholastic aptitude and attempt to gain information about students on each of these traits or factors. For example, if scholastic aptitude is composed of verbal, numerical, and spatial abilities, the guidance worker should evaluate each of these abilities rather than be satisfied with a total score. Furthermore, two individuals having the same scholastic aptitude total score may vary considerably on the scores for the various traits mentioned above, and such variance may be tremendously important in helping that student to make an adequate selection of a curriculum or vocational choice.[1]

As with most psychological traits, intelligence is distributed among the population according to the normal probability curve. A small percentage of the population possesses very high and low intelligence with the majority falling in the middle. As found with the standardized group of the revised Stanford-Binet, a distribution of the IQ with the percentage falling in each group is presented in the table on page 205.

There have been many attempts to determine the minimum IQ necessary for successfully completing certain levels of school or for success-

[1] The reader is referred to M. E. Hahn, and Malcolm MacLean, *General Clinical Counseling*, and Donald E. Super, *Appraising Vocational Fitness*, for a more detailed description of the various factors involved in scholastic aptitude and in the other aptitudes discussed in this chapter.

fully competing in the various occupations. While these are useful to the guidance worker as a general help, they should not be strictly adhered to, for there will be great variation from school to school and from one local situation to another.

<div align="center">

DISTRIBUTION OF IQ's IN THE REVISED STANFORD-BINET
STANDARDIZATION GROUP (32)

</div>

| IQ | Verbal Description | Percentage Falling in Each Group (Among 2904 subjects, ages 2½ to 18) |
|---|---|---|
| 140 and above | Very superior | 1 |
| 120–139 | Superior | 11 |
| 110–119 | High average | 18 |
| 90–109 | Average | 46 |
| 80– 89 | Low average | 15 |
| 70– 79 | Borderline | 6 |
| Below 70 | Mentally defective | 3 |

In summary, we might say that the concept of the IQ, originating out of the studies of Binet, is still useful in guidance, even though it is rapidly being replaced by the multifactor approach to intelligence. Guidance workers should have an understanding of both approaches. Furthermore, the general information concerning the distribution of IQ's in the general population is essential knowledge for the counselor who wishes to use scholastic aptitude as a guide to assisting students.

### How Can Scholastic Aptitude Be Measured?

To determine any psychological ability, an effective procedure is to permit the student to work for a time at the particular task which requires the ability in question. If successful in the actual real-life situation, then the student would likely be successful in similar situations. Conversely, if he failed, he would be unlikely to succeed in the future. Notwithstanding this as the ideal method, it would be impossible to activate in terms of situations, time, energy, and money. Therefore, we have to seek other methods of appraising the ability of students constantly. A discussion of some of these methods follows:

#### SCHOOL GRADES AS INDICATORS OF SCHOLASTIC APTITUDE

If scholastic aptitude is concerned with the individual's capacity to learn in school situations, it should indicate then that the student who receives the best grades would have the highest scholastic aptitude. Unfor-

tunately, the simplicity of this statement is not borne out because of the many factors which determine grades. Super (48:86–92), after summarizing a number of studies, concludes that there is a relationship between intelligence and educational achievement as revealed by the levels of intelligence in different curricular areas of studies. In other words, there are different levels of intelligence for high school students who are in the college preparatory, commercial, and trade curricula.[2] Super also observes that the correlation between intelligence tests and grades is not especially high, ranging from .30 to .80. These relationships are high enough to be of use when studying groups of students, but should be used with caution when counseling individual pupils. Because past academic achievement is the best single predictor of future scholastic achievement, the academic progress of a student provides a helpful index in determining his scholastic aptitude. The guidance worker, however, should use discretion in using this index only; it is but one of many that should be used to ascertain an accurate appraisal of the student's scholastic aptitude.

## OCCUPATIONAL STATUS OF PARENT AS AN INDICATOR OF SCHOLASTIC APTITUDE

If we group individuals according to their occupations, we have also grouped them according to their intelligence. This results from the relationship between intelligence, education, and occupations and illustrates the fact that scholastic aptitude is the most important of all the aptitudes. The intelligence for groups of children largely corresponds to that of the father's occupation. This is indicated in the table on page 207 which shows the IQ's of children classified according to their fathers' occupations.

While data in the following table indicate a positive relationship between the intelligence of the child and the occupational status of the father, the guidance worker should remember that there is a great deal of overlapping from one group to another and even within a group. Because so many exceptions occur it is dangerous practice to use this index alone for giving an indication of intelligence. However, when the occupational level of the child's parent is known and is supplemented

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[2] A correlation of .73 was found between the AGCT score and the highest grade completed in school with a sample of 4330 men in World War II. Staff, Personnel Research Section, Classification and Replacement Branch, Adjutant General's Office, "The Army General Classification Test," *Psychological Bulletin* (1945), 42:760–768.

by other methods of determining intelligence a rather good measure of the scholastic aptitude of the pupil can be determined. It should never be used as an index by itself but in conjunction with the other techniques described here.

AVERAGE IQ's OF CHILDREN CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO FATHERS' OCCUPATION [a]

| Fathers' Occupational Classification | Age of child at time of testing | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 2–5½ | 6–9 | 10–14 | 15–18 |
| 1. Professional | 115 | 115 | 118 | 116 |
| 2. Semiprofessional and managerial | 112 | 107 | 112 | 117 |
| 3. Clerical, skilled trades and retail business | 108 | 105 | 107 | 110 |
| 4. Rural owners | 98 | 95 | 92 | 94 |
| 5. Semiskilled, minor clerical, minor business | 104 | 105 | 103 | 107 |
| 6. Slightly skilled | 97 | 100 | 101 | 96 |
| 7. Day laborers, urban and rural | 94 | 96 | 97 | 98 |

[a] The IQ's are composite of Form L and M of the Stanford-Binet (29).

TEACHER OBSERVATION AS AN INDICATOR OF SCHOLASTIC APTITUDE

The teacher is constantly observing students in the classroom, on the playground, in interviews, in testing, in the halls, or in the auditorium. Most of these observations are incidental and are never recorded. However, to be of optimum value they should be summarized in the form of ratings, anecdotes, diaries, as described in chapter 11. While observation will contribute information concerning the scholastic aptitude of a pupil that can be gained in no other way, observation is valid only if the observer is objective and has had experience in choosing significant behavior from a given frame of reference.

Some of the kinds of behavior useful for describing or predicting scholastic aptitude are suggested as follows (46):

### OBSERVATION OF LEARNING ABILITIES

Rapidity with which student comprehends printed material

Rapidity, accuracy, and expression in oral reading
  (Note vocabulary, ability to think independently about what is read, etc.)

Indication of ability in other subjects, as, hesitancy or failure to attack problem in arithmetic

Kind and number of questions asked—relevant to the discussion, showing originality, showing grasp of subject, trivial or important

Eagerness to answer many questions versus a tendency to answer only when called upon

Deficiency in one or more skills as compared with the other students in the class

If a teacher scientifically observes his students in these activities much information useful for complementing data gathered by testing can be obtained to provide a meaningful picture of the child's learning capacity.

## SELF-ESTIMATES AS INDICATORS OF SCHOLASTIC APTITUDE

Every student has an opinion of his capabilities, but too frequently this estimate is so biased and unrealistic, that it is useless as a measure of scholastic prediction. Studies pertaining to the value of self-estimates have been primarily concerned with college students. A brief review of a sample study will assist in clarifying the value of student opinion in determining the scholastic aptitude of students.

Freehill (*17*) asked 100 college freshmen to estimate their probable college grade-point average by course areas and in general. He found a correlation of .33 between expected and earned grade-point average. A study was also made of the accuracy with which college freshmen judge their performance on a number of psychological tests. It was concluded that a freshman's estimate of his abilities, knowledges, and interests does not correspond highly with his actual possession of these attributes as measured by objective tests (*5*).

Young (*57*) selected at random 100 beginning freshmen at the University of Wisconsin and asked them for a self-estimate of their scholastic ability and a self-prediction of their achievement. A coefficient of correlation of .71 was found between self-predictions of scholastic achievement and actual achievement. The relationship between self-estimate of scholastic ability and test measures of that ability was .61.

Although the results of these studies are inconclusive, they do suggest that teachers and counselors should give consideration to the technique of gathering self-estimates when appraising scholastic aptitude. If the student has had experience with standardized tests of scholastic aptitude, it seems logical that the more mature the student the more accurate would be the self-estimate. Obviously, until such an assumption is proved by further research, the method of self-estimation should not be used without verification; on the other hand, it should not be neglected because of its apparent subjectivity.

STANDARDIZED TESTS AS INDICATORS OF SCHOLASTIC APTITUDE

Due, in large part, to the development and objectivity of measures of intelligence, tests are used far more extensively for determining scholastic aptitude than are any of the other techniques cited. In chapter 7 a number of limitations concerning the use of tests were observed. In order to select, administer, and use tests properly the guidance worker should be cognizant of these limitations.

Hundreds of standardized tests are available and a good proportion of them may be classified as measures of scholastic aptitude. While there is a considerable variation in what they measure and how they measure it, we shall classify them as either (1) individual tests, or (2) group tests. A description of the type of tests found in these divisions follows. This shall be followed by illustrative scholastic aptitude tests used in the schools today.

*Individual Tests.* Individual tests require that one person be tested at a time. Furthermore, the individual who administers and scores the test needs specialized training beyond that required for the average classroom teaching. Because of these limiting factors, the individual intelligence test is not used extensively in the public schools. This is an unfortunate circumstance because individual intelligence tests are more valid than group tests. To be correct we should not use the term IQ unless it refers to an individual intelligence test.

The two most commonly used individual intelligence tests are the Stanford-Binet and the Wechsler-Bellevue. The historical development of the former has already been presented, and it should be emphasized that the Stanford-Binet has been more carefully standardized and validated than any other intelligence scale. However, it is more applicable as a measure with children than adults and provides only a general intelligence score. At the present the Wechsler-Bellevue is generally recognized as the most valid intelligence scale for adults. It consists of two parts, a verbal and performance scale, which can be combined to find a general intelligence scale. In those cases where pupils who lack verbal facility due to poor training or background score high on the performance scale, the availability of a performance measure is very valuable in appraising the scholastic aptitude of the student. Unlike the Stanford-Binet, the Wechsler-Bellevue tests can be used as a verbal and performance scale rather than as just a single general intelligence scale. While in most schools individual intelligence tests are given by a school psy-

chologist or a professionally trained counselor, all teachers should be aware that these tests can be used to find a more accurate appraisal of scholastic aptitude than can be obtained by the group tests.

*Group Tests.* Because of the lack of trained personnel for administering individual tests and the impracticability of testing only one student at a time, numerous group tests have been developed. For the most part these are paper and pencil tests that can be given to a large number of students at one time.

Group tests may be characterized as "power or speed" tests depending upon whether they are timed or untimed. Speed tests require the testee to finish as many problems as possible within the time limit. On the other hand, power tests, ranging in difficulty from the simple to the complex, may be taken with no time limit. The purpose of a power test is to permit the student to reach the limit of his understanding without pressure of time. Illustrative of a power test is the Ohio State Psychological Examination; while the American Council on Education Psychological Examination is one of the most commonly used speed tests.

Group tests may also be classified according to whether the test is a performance or verbal test. If the test requires the testee to have reading and verbal facility, then the test is designated as verbal. When a pupil is verbally handicapped because of poor training or a bilingual home, he is penalized by a verbal test and should, accordingly, be given a test where requirements of verbal facility are minimized. A performance test utilizes such materials as blocks, pictures of objects or scenes, and geometric forms. An example of a verbal test is the Otis Self-Administering Test of Mental Ability, while one of the best known performance tests is the Arthur Point Scale of Performance.

A third method of classifying group tests is according to whether the test results are in terms of a single general intelligence score or in terms of a number of abilities or intelligences. With the development of the newer concept of intelligence, i.e., many factors rather than one, the need for tests to measures such factors arose. The pioneer work of Thurstone at Chicago led to the development of the *Primary Abilities Test.* This test includes a measurement of seven varieties of intelligence or abilities which have been isolated and named. Recently the Psychological Corporation has published *The Differential Aptitude Tests,* and Science Research Associates publishes the *SRA Primary Mental Abilities.* All of these tests are aimed at measuring the various factors that comprise intelligence. The trend toward this type of measurement is

demonstrated in the studies of the United States Employment Service under the direction of Dr. Beatrice Dvorak. Out of these studies has grown the General Aptitude Test Battery which utilizes the principle of multifactors in intelligence rather than a general intelligence score. This and similar batteries will be valuable in guidance, and eventually will replace the separately developed and validated aptitude tests in counseling.

While we have used three different classifications to describe the various types of available group tests, many tests have the characteristics of two or more types. For example, the *Differential Aptitude Test* is a multifactor test, timed, and both verbal and performance. The efficient guidance worker will become thoroughly acquainted with the various types of tests, their contents, principles of administration and scoring, and possess a working knowledge of the results of research related to them. Finally, the professional worker will evaluate the scholastic aptitude of each pupil in terms of all the information gained by the various techniques described in foregoing pages.

Because of the importance of tests and the frequency of their use, we should like to present a brief description of selected scholastic aptitude group tests currently available.

### EXAMPLES OF TESTS [3]

*Kuhlmann-Anderson Intelligence Tests* by F. Kuhlmann and R. G. Anderson (6th ed., 1952). These tests measure scholastic aptitude from kindergarten through grade 12 and maturity. There are separate test booklets for each grade from kindergarten through grade 6, a single booklet for grades 7 and 8, and a single booklet beginning with grade 9 and extending through high school and maturity. The booklets are designated by letters rather than by grade labels. Available from Personal Press, Inc.

*New California Short-Form Tests of Mental Maturity* by E. T. Sullivan, W. W. Clark, and E. W. Tiegs (1951 ed.). These tests measure scholastic aptitude from kindergarten through maturity. Five booklets are available as follows: preprimary, for kindergarten and grade 1; primary, for grade 1 through grade 3; elementary, for grade 4 through grade 8; intermediate, for grade 7 through grade 10; and advanced, for grade 9 through adulthood. Available from the California Test Bureau, Los Angeles, California.

[3] The examples here are representative of the many available scholastic aptitude tests. For further information see Oscar Buros, *Mental Measurement Yearbooks*, and the various test manuals published by the testing bureaus.

*SRA Primary Mental Abilities* by L. L. Thurstone and T. G. Thurstone. These tests measure basic learning aptitudes in three batteries designed for ages 5–7, 7–11, and 11–17. In the first battery, the learning aptitudes of verbal meaning, quantitative, space, perceptual speed, and motor are measured. In the second battery, verbal meaning, space, reasoning, perception, and number are measured. In the third battery, verbal meaning, space, reasoning, number, and word fluency are measured. Each battery gives a total score which may be converted into a general IQ. Available from Science Research Associates, Chicago, Ill.

*American Council on Education Psychological Examination for High-School Students* by L. L. Thurstone and T. G. Thurstone. A single test booklet giving three different scores: L score, a measure of ability to handle linguistic concepts; Q score, a measure of ability to handle technical or quantitative concepts; T score, the L score and Q score added together. This test is intended for pupils in grade 9 through grade 12. Available from the Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N. J.

*The Ohio State University Psychological Test: Form 21* by Herbert A. Toops

This is a work-limit test which yields a total score for scholastic aptitude, and a subscore for reading ability. Norms for the reading score and for the total score in percentile form are furnished for each grade, grades 9 through 12, and for college freshmen. Available from Science Research Associates, Chicago, Ill.

*Differential Aptitude Tests* by George K. Bennett, Harold G. Seashore, and Alexander G. Wesman

This battery of eight tests yields the following separate scores: verbal reasoning, numerical ability, abstract reasoning, space relations, mechanical reasoning, clerical speed and accuracy, language usage-spelling, and language usage-sentences. The manual states that these "tests are intended to cover the major measurement requirements in the guidance program." Appropriate for use in grades 8 through 12. Two comparable forms of the test are available. Available from The Psychological Corporation, New York, N. Y.

## MECHANICAL APTITUDE [4]

### *What Is It?*

As with all aptitudes, more than one factor is needed to analyze mechanical ability and predict vocational success. Other aptitudes

[4] The authors are indebted to the following booklet for much of the material on this section: George K. Bennett and Ruth M. Cruikshank, *A Summary of Manual and Mechanical Ability Test*, The Psychological Corporation, New York, 1942.

frequently interrelated with mechanical aptitude and must be considered when appraising it. Such traits as general intelligence, temperament, physique, and various attitudes of the pupil play an important role in the appraisal. Although research in the mechanical field has not isolated all the elements comprising "mechanical" ability, there appear to be three reasonably distinct components (8:1). The first and probably the most important trait is the capacity which includes the elements of spatial perception and imagination. High degrees of this component are characteristic of engineers and physical scientists.

A second aspect of mechanical aptitude is that of manual dexterity involving precision of muscular coördination. A lack of such ability can be observed in those children injured at birth, who thus are unable to perform simple tasks such as brushing the teeth or combing the hair. A high degree of mechanical aptitude is possessed by individuals proficient in machine shop work, auto mechanics, and electrical appliance repair.

A third variable apparently consists of the combined motor abilities of strength, speed of movement, and endurance. This variable is difficult to regard as mechanical in nature but is frequently utilized in the unskilled occupations, particularly those concerned with the movement of materials. Mechanical occupations require all three components in varying amounts. Many occupations commonly considered outside of the "mechanical field," playing a musical instrument for an example, require a degree of mechanical ability. The problem of the guidance worker, then, is to estimate the various components of mechanical aptitude of the individual and to compare the traits present with possible occupational outlets.

## How Can Mechanical Aptitude Be Measured?

Many sources of information should be sampled before making a judgment of the mechanical ability of the student. Numerous areas may provide information to determine the mechanical aptitude of the student. Indication of the mechanical ability of the student can frequently be observed in the work experience at mechanical jobs. Part-time work as an auto mechanic's helper, service station attendant, or work in the building construction trades, provides a "try-out course" in terms of interest and ability. The alert counselor will use observation at part-time jobs as a means of providing an additional index for mechanical aptitude.

The pupil's performance in school subjects that involve mechanical tasks provides a second method for estimating mechanical aptitude. His grades in wood shop, auto mechanics, vocational agriculture, mechanical drawing, and radio courses all provide samples of work requiring mechanical ability. Performance in such academic courses as mathematics, physics, and other science courses must be above average for students expecting to pursue professional training in the mechanical field. In fact, a primary prerequisite of prospective engineers or physicists is high academic ability.

A third index of mechanical ability is the choice of hobbies. If a student likes to build model airplanes, to operate a fix-it shop for bicycles, or employ himself in a miniature wood shop, then mechanical aptitude is indicated. While the pursuance of a hobby involves an interest and interests do not always include ability, it is unlikely that the hobby will be continued if ability is missing. When this index is combined with the other measures discussed above, the counselor makes a more accurate judgment.

Closely associated with the techniques described are the stated and measured interests of the student. If a pupil professes an interest in mechanical work and there also appears to be a sustained interest in this field, then there is likely to be some degree of ability supporting the interest. Although research has taught us to be cautious in interpreting any stated or measured interest as an indication of aptitude, the sustained interests in any area should not be ignored.

Another method for appraising mechanical aptitude is the standardized mechanical tests. Although there are wide variations in these tests, they can be classified primarily into two groups: (1) paper and pencil tests, and (2) performance tests with apparatus.

Paper and pencil tests can be used to measure a variety of levels of mechanical ability. The most common type, that is, measure of mechanical information, is based on the assumption that a person who is mechanically inclined will acquire more information of a mechanical nature in the course of his development than one who is not so mechanically minded. Another type is the mechanical comprehension type which attempts to determine if the testee knows how various mechanical devices work. Mere knowledge of mechanical information is insufficient to measure certain levels of mechanical aptitude, but the application of that information is vital. Tests requiring the ability to deal with spatial relationships is a third type of paper and pencil measurement. Tests of

this nature are closely related to mechanical aptitude and, if of sufficient length, show some relationship to intelligence and to school grades in courses requiring mechanical ability. We should recognize that for a test to be valid for measuring mechanical aptitude, it should show low intercorrelation with intelligence and other aptitude tests and a high correlation with a criterion of mechanical ability such as judgment of work done in mechanical jobs. Apparently the trait of spatial perception is involved in both academic and mechanical ability.

The mechanical ability performance tests usually include such tests as assembly, spatial form boards, cube and block constructions, and puzzle boxes. Such measures generally include mechanical devices which require the testee to assemble or place them in a certain manner in the shortest period of time. One distinct disadvantage of such tests is that they are usually individually administered, thus requiring a large block of time. Consequently, they may have very limited use in the public school guidance program.

## How Good Are Mechanical Tests?

The effectiveness of a test can be determined through correlations with vocational success, school success, or success in a course. If the correlation is high then the predictive value of the test (for that particular criterion) is said to be high.

Thorndike (50) and his associates tested 2000 school children with the Stenquist Assembly Test for boys and the I. E. R. Assembly Tests for girls. Some years later a large number of these students were interviewed and various measures of vocational success, such as earnings, levels of work, number of changes in employer, were obtained. When these measures were correlated with the tests the resulting coefficients were very low; thus it appeared that mechanical tests were of little value in predicting vocational success. It is difficult to determine whether the low correlations were due to inadequacies of the tests or the inadequacies of establishing a criterion for vocational success. A combination of both is probably the more accurate; however, such a study does bring to a focus the difficulty in finding an appropriate criterion for vocational success.

Numerous studies have shown the relationship between tests of mechanical ability and various measures of engineering school success. This area has probably been most explored because of the nature and length of an engineer's training plus the fact that mechanical ability is usually

regarded as an important qualification for the engineer. Correlations from such studies vary from .21 to .73. In general, data from these studies indicate a significant relationship between tests involving spatial relationships or comprehension of basic mechanical principles and achievement in engineering studies (47:34–36). Thus mechanical aptitude tests can be helpful in evaluating a student's possible potentiality for courses involving spatial perception, but for indices of possible general achievement these tests have limited value.

A number of studies have also been conducted to show the relationship between mechanical tests and success in dental schools. The correlations vary from very low to moderately high. As a whole, such coefficients are high enough to constitute a fairly reliable basis for estimating an individual's chances for successfully completing dental training providing he has the other academic abilities (47:92–95).

Research in this area once more affirms the need for caution; the results of tests of mechanical aptitude should never be considered alone. However, when combined with work experience, grades in school courses involving mechanical skill, hobbies, and interests, the counselor can feel more secure in providing adequate guidance in helping the student to pursue a mechanical objective.

## Examples of Mechanical Aptitude Tests [5]

### DETROIT MECHANICAL APTITUDE EXAMINATION

Author—H. J. Baker, P. H. Voelker, and A. C. Crockett.
Publisher, Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill.
Norms from 7–22 years, boys and girls ✓
Forms: 1 form
Group, paper and pencil test, takes 30 to 40 minutes
Reliability: Retest after six weeks gave reliability coefficient of .90; coefficients for the sub-tests ranged from .57 to .88. (N=259 pupils.)
Validity: No correlations with shop grades or other indices of mechanical ability are reported. Correlation of the first edition (1929) with such an index was .64.
Standardization Group: 10,000 pupils, representing largely an unselected population of eighth and ninth grade students. Letter ratings, and age

[5] References 7 and 8 provide the model for the description of the mechanical and clerical tests to follow, but changes have been made to bring the material up to date.

norms given for total score, sub-test scores, and for sub-test groups of motor, visual imagery, and mechanical information tests. Separate norms for boys and girls were not considered necessary.

## MACQUARRIE TEST FOR MECHANICAL ABILITY

Author—T. W. MacQuarrie

Publisher, California Test Bureau

Grades 7 to adult

Forms: 1

Paper and pencil group test, takes about 30 minutes

Reliability: Correlations for repetition of tests reported as high as .90. Considerable individual variability is possible, however.

Validity: Correlation with teachers' estimates as high as .48; correlation with shop project rating from .32 to .81.

Standardization Group: School population varying in age from 10 to 20 years.

## MECHANICAL COMPREHENSION TEST

Author—G. K. Bennett

Publisher, The Psychological Corporation

High School and above

Forms: Form AA, BB, CC, W1 (the mechanical reasoning test of the Differential Aptitude test series is also a variation of this test)

A paper and pencil, group or individual test, which is unlimited in time, but probably will not take more than 30 minutes.

Reliability: .84 (corrected by Spearman-Brown formula) for single grade group of ninth grade boys.

Validity: Increasing mean scores for age and work of greater mechanical complexity. Item validity determined against weighted combined scores of the MacQuarrie Test for Mechanical Ability, Detroit Mechanical Aptitudes Examination, and the Revised Minnesota Paper Form Board Test.

Standardization Group: Over 5000 cases:
    883 ninth grade boys
    370 tenth grade boys
    348 eleventh grade boys
    300 twelfth grade boys
    613 engineering school freshmen
    3525 adult candidates for technical courses and positions

MINNESOTA ASSEMBLY TEST

Author—Revised and amplified by D. G. Paterson, R. M. Elliott, H. A. Toops, and E. Heidbreder, from the Stenquist Assembling Tests.

Publisher, Marietta Apparatus Company

Age norms, 11–21 and above

Forms: Boxes A, B, C (Long form) Boxes 1, 2 (Short form)

An individual apparatus test which takes 56 minutes working time for all items; 20 minutes for short series

Reliability: A reliability coefficient of .94 (odd-even, corrected by Spearman-Brown formula); lower coefficients for adults.

Validity: A coefficient of .55 is reported between this test and shop output quality; .35 between this test and a mechanical information test.

Standardization Group: Age norms in percentile rankings for boys, and academic grade norms for both sexes.

REVISED MINNESOTA PAPER FORM BOARD

Author—R. Likert and W. H. Quasha

Distributor, The Psychological Corporation

9 years to adults

Forms: Two forms, AA and BB

A group, paper and pencil test, which takes about 20 minutes

Reliability: .85 for one series and .92 for both series, coefficients based upon scores of 290 high school seniors applying for admission to college.

Validity: No new validation attempted, aside from obtaining norms for various ages and vocations. Lowest correlation between Minnesota Paper Form Board and Revised Minnesota Paper Form Board is .75.

Standardization Group: Included in the standardization group are 939 engineering students, 247 liberal arts freshmen, 1288 high school seniors, 352 business college students, 536 adults (men and women applying for positions through the Adult Guidance Bureau), 539 vocational school boys, 537 boys (ages 9–15), and 173 printers' apprentices.

## CLERICAL APTITUDE

### What Is It?

The factors involved in clerical aptitude have been largely determined by making factor analyses of present clerical tests. This is similar to the procedure followed in the classification of all the various aptitudes. Andrew (4) analyzed a battery of 17 different tests which concentrated mainly on speed and accuracy in carrying out simple tasks mostly of a clerical nature. She found the following five traits being measured: (1)

speed and accuracy in simple clerical tasks, (2) speed in simple discrimination, (3) spatial ability, (4) speed in motor ability, and (5) ability to observe and compare.

A factorial analysis of the batteries of tests used by the United States Employment Service indicated five different traits being measured: verbal, numerical, spatial, and two perceptual factors (P and Q) (*41*). The Q factor appeared in tests measuring number and word checking, an arithmetical decimals test, a coding test, and a number-copying test. Thus it would appear that this Q factor is similar to many duties involved in clerical tasks.

Apparently one of the primary factors of clerical aptitude is the ability to work rapidly and accurately in the discrimination of words, numbers, or letters. The degree to which the efficient clerical worker would perform this task will depend upon the level and complexity of the job. In the past several years the increase in the number of jobs in the clerical field presents a challenge to the professional counselor in devising ways and means to increase the effectiveness of his appraisal and thus assist students to make appropriate educational and vocational choices in this field. The use of these tests is made more difficult in counseling because clerical skills can be used in many areas of work not commonly classified as clerical.

### How Can It Be Measured?

We should emphasize that the various aptitudes discussed in this chapter are interrelated within any one individual and that most jobs, if not all, require more than one aptitude for success. The kind and degree of aptitude will vary from job to job but no specific work requires but one aptitude exclusively. Thus, many of the same techniques discussed in previous sections will apply to the measurement of clerical aptitude.

"Tryout experience" in typing, filing, and general clerical work provides a good basis for estimating clerical aptitude. In terms of time and money, this is often not feasible, thus, other means for predicting probable success must be found. The grades of a student in English, arithmetic, typing, or other commercial subjects usually yield good data concerning ability of the student in the clerical area. Often *indications of social ability are desirable because many clerical jobs require such aptitudes for success.* Indices of social characteristics and abilities can

be gathered from participation in extracurricular activities, student government, athletics, dramatics, and school clubs among others.

A third method for clerical appraisal is an evaluation of stated and measured interests. A thorough survey of the pupil's hobbies and avocational interests will provide excellent supplementary data which, if interpreted with caution, will assist the counselor to appraise clerical ability.

Included in available standardized tests are measures of speed and accuracy in basic numerical and verbal manipulations, as well as both perceptual and motor skills. These instruments, referred to as aptitude tests in order to distinguish them from achievement tests of spelling, arithmetic, and language, are useful and meaningful in estimating clerical skills.

Abundant research has been conducted to determine the value of various tests in predicting success in clerical jobs. The multiplicity of jobs including general clerk, typist, stenographer, and various specialized clerical workers, has made the task of appraisal more difficult. The reader is referred to Bennett and Cruikshank (7) for a complete analysis of the studies. It is apparent from the conclusions of these studies that tests can be useful in helping appraise clerical ability, if the results are coördinated with intelligence tests, records of school grades, and other techniques described in foregoing paragraphs.

## Examples of Clerical Tests

### DIFFERENTIAL APTITUDE TESTS

Clerical Speed and Accuracy Test

Author—G. K. Bennett, H. G. Seashore, and A. G. Wesman

Published 1947, The Psychological Corporation

High School

Forms: A and B

Content: One hundred items involving identification of identical letter-digit combinations from among similar material.

Reliability: Average correlation (grades 8–12) of alternate forms is .87 for both boys and girls.

Validity: Data so far available are in relation to school success and to other aptitude tests. Correlation coefficients with various commercial courses average about .25.

Norm Group: A total of over 47,000 cases for the two forms. Separate norms are provided for each sex and for each grade from 8 through 12.

MINNESOTA CLERICAL TEST

(Minnesota Vocational Test for Clerical Workers)

Author—D. M. Andrew, D. G. Paterson, and H. P. Longstaff

Published 1933, The Psychological Corporation

High school and adults

One form

Content: Composed of two separately timed sub-tests.

Test 1—Number Comparison. Consists of 200 pairs of numbers varying in length from 3 to 12 digits. The examinee's task is to compare each pair and if the numbers are the same to make a check mark on the line between the pair of numbers. (8 minutes)

Test 2—Name Comparison. Consists of 200 paired names which vary in length from 7 to 16 letters. The examinee is to inspect the names and place a check mark on the line between the names if they are the same. (7 minutes)

In both tests, half of the items are correct and half are incorrect.

Reliability: The median coefficient for 13 reported groups is .85. These are all from alternate forms or test-retest situations. Examples: Test 1 and Test 2 versus comparable forms, .90 for 138 clerical workers; Test 1 and Test 1 for 48 business students, .76; Test 2 and Test 2 for the same group, .83; Tests 1 and 2 versus Tests 1 and 2 for the group.

Validity: Many studies have indicated the suitability of the test for predicting success in clerical work. Some of these are summarized in the manual for the test. Test scores against ratings for clerical workers have varied from .28 to .42. Combined with personal history ratings these are in the neighborhood of .65. Significant differences between group averages are found for a number of groups, such as fast and slow typists, employed and unemployed clerical workers, clerical workers and others, and the like.

Norm Group: By far the most complete norms (54 sets) available for any commercially published clerical test have been developed; grade, age, sex, occupational, and regional norms.

SRA CLERICAL APTITUDES

Author—Richardson, Bellows, Henry and Company, Inc.

Published 1948, Science Research Associates

High School and adults

Forms: A and B

Content: Contains the following types of sub-tests: Office vocabulary (48 pairs of words to be checked as same in meaning, opposite in meaning, or neither).

Office arithmetic (24 items requiring use of arithmetical skills to solve practical problems). Multiple-choice.

Office checking (144 test items arranged from 9 presentations of 16 three-letter key words paired with 16 two-digit numbers). Each test item consists of one of these key words and five possible answers, one of which is the number associated with the key word in the code presented at the top of each page.

Reliability: Reliability coefficient of .92 estimated by Kuder-Richardson formula 21 for the whole test. Reliabilities of parts not reported.

Validity: No studies reported. Authors suggest preparing weights for each part on the basis of local validation studies.

Norms Group: Preliminary norms for 182 students attending commercial, secretarial, public and private high schools.

## OTHER APTITUDES

While it might be possible to extend the list of aptitudes, as indicated in the first part of this chapter, it is not feasible or practical. Artistic and musical aptitudes represent areas of research, but from the standpoint of occupational opportunities they are rather limited. Frequently an appraisal of experience in these fields plus the rating of a competent professional person is the best means of ascertaining aptitudes in them.

Much work has been completed on the Meier Art Judgment Test, McAdory Art Test, and The Seashore Measures of Musical Talents; the reader is referred to the bibliography at the end of the chapter for a more detailed analysis of measurement of aptitudes in these areas. The chapter on Personal and Social Adjustment will discuss various means of evaluating ability in social competence.

## USES OF APTITUDE TESTS

We have continuously emphasized that information gained from tests is but one means of appraising the capabilities of the student. Data gathered by this method should always be complemented by data gained from other sources.

The counselor is confronted constantly with the student who asks for assistance in making appropriate educational and vocational choices. Because curriculum areas require different degrees and kinds of abilities, it is easier to help a student make an appropriate choice if his aptitudes are appraised. The commercial curriculum, for example, so differs from the vocational or college preparatory curriculum that the use of aptitude tests is vital for correct counseling.

That there are various levels of abilities even within the same apti-

tude field is not forgotten by the efficient counselor. This is illustrated by the Minnesota Occupational Rating Scales presented earlier in this chapter. The authors of the MORS suggest the use of a profile by which an appraisal of the various aptitudes can be used, including a comparison with the requirements necessary for success in the chosen occupation. Such a profile may be extended into the curriculum areas which we find in the public schools today. We should like to alter the MORS as follows so as to provide a profile for the counselor in assisting students to make appropriate vocational choices. We are aware that a long range program involving occupational choice should also be recognized, but a systematic aid to the counselor might be like that given below.

| Curriculum | Aptitudes | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *Acad.* | *Mech.* | *Soc.* | *Cl.* | *Mus.* | *Art.* | *Phys.* |
| 1. Trades and Industries | .... | .... | .... | .... | .... | .... | .... |
| 2. Vocational agriculture | .... | .... | .... | .... | .... | .... | .... |
| 3. College preparatory | .... | .... | .... | .... | .... | .... | .... |
| 4. Business or commercial | .... | .... | .... | .... | .... | .... | .... |
| Students' self-estimate of aptitudes | .... | .... | .... | .... | .... | .... | .... |
| Systematic appraisal by means of formal and informal methods | .... | .... | .... | .... | .... | .... | .... |

With such a profile the counselor should determine locally how much of each aptitude is necessary for the completion of a particular curriculum. This procedure may be initiated appropriately in the ninth grade and as the student progresses through high school more specific occupational opportunities can be discussed in relation to the results of the MORS. This system is suggested merely as a method for classifying students according to an analysis of their abilities and possible future occupational choices. It should be used only on the basis of aptitudes and not interests. Furthermore, aptitude appraisal should be based upon all the various sources of data discussed in this chapter.

As a means for understanding each enrolled student or for improving the curriculum, the data of aptitude tests are indispensable to the school administrator. An adequate system of classifying pupils should promote better teaching and more effective learning, and should reduce the num-

ber of drop-outs. When glaring weaknesses appear by an analysis of
student-aptitude, the administration is supported by sufficient data to
launch a constructive effort toward improvement.

## SUMMARY

Much confusion exists today concerning the definition of an aptitude.
The discord apparently centers around two basic questions: (1) Is an
aptitude acquired or inborn? (2) Is it a single unitary trait or a combi-
nation of traits? From a practical standpoint an aptitude in this chapter
was considered as the capacity, usually undeveloped, to learn skill(s)
and ability(ies) necessary for success in a particular area of work.

By the use of factor analysis statisticians have classified aptitudes. As
greater precision instruments become available the list continues to
grow, and as more refined measuring tools become available the expan-
sion will be likely to continue. It is desirable not only to classify apti-
tudes but also to describe them and to suggest occupational opportunities
for the various levels of ability. A group of psychologists developed the
Minnesota Occupational Rating Scale for this very purpose. They gave
a description, level, and occupational outlets for the following aptitudes:
academic, mechanical, social, clerical, musical, artistic, and physical. The
use of these scales helps the counselor to appraise systematically the
aptitudes of the student and to assist him with appropriate educational
and vocational choices.

Detailed analysis was presented of the three basic aptitudes of scho-
lastic, mechanical, and clerical. In each case the aptitude was defined and
various techniques were suggested for its measurement. It was found
that each aptitude was composed of a number of traits and that it is the
responsibility of the guidance worker to appraise the extent to which
each pupil possesses these traits. The common techniques used in ap-
praisal are: try-out courses, school grades in appropriate courses, hobbies,
observation, and standardized tests. For an accurate appraisal, informa-
tion should be gathered from several methods rather than any one single
technique. Although wide recognition has been given to other important
aptitudes, they were not given extensive discussion in this chapter be-
cause of their limited vocational opportunities. The reader was referred
to other sources for more detailed description of musical and artistic
aptitudes.

The main purpose of measuring aptitudes is to assist the pupil in
making a more appropriate educational and vocational choice which, in

turn, will aid in his total development. Only when a counselor has a thorough knowledge of the pupil's abilities can he help guide him in the appropriate direction. Teachers need to know pupils' abilities in order to provide meaningful experiences. The school administrator needs to know them in order to understand each pupil enrolled in his school as well as to have data at hand to improve the curriculum.

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# The Identification and Utilization of Interests in Guidance

## WHY GUIDANCE WORKERS SHOULD BE CONCERNED WITH INTERESTS

*Interests Are Integrated with Personality*

INTERESTS are developed according to the same laws and principles that condition other modifications of behavior. They have their origin in successful adjustment to a situation which creates the desire to obtain similar satisfactions from similar situations. An individual is interested in those things which will satisfy his needs; thus interests pertain directly to goals.

Although clarity of goals insures interest and increased motivation, neither clearness of goals nor increased motivation guarantee personality adjustment in the sense of feelings of adequacy and security; on the other hand, lack of clearness and motivation exaggerates conditions of maladjustment. Guidance, then, should be concerned in assisting the individual to both clarify and achieve his goals. In other words, guidance assists the individual to adjust, which in turn brings pleasure and satisfaction. Interest will follow any situation which creates the desire to obtain similar satisfactions from similar situations. While repeated situations are rarely the same, in the effort to find "sameness" interests tend to expand and to become the basis for still more and varied experiences.

Remmers (36) has clarified our thinking significantly by discussing the concepts of interest as more or less closely allied to attitudes. He defines interests as the reflection of attractions and aversions in our be-

havior, of our feelings of pleasantness and unpleasantness, likes and dislikes. Interests indicate the degree to which the individual prefers to hold an object before his consciousness, whether he acts approvingly or disapprovingly toward the object; while attitudes indicate his reaction in terms of direction, pleasantness or unpleasantness, agreement or disagreement.

The distinction between attitude and interests are very fine; so intricate in fact, that for practical purposes they are identical.

## The School Curriculum Should Be Related to Interests

According to the philosophy of modern education, the adjustment of the curriculum to the child is a fundamental aim. Children's interests, growing out of meaningful life situations, provide a key to this adjustment.

If the teacher is to provide the proper environment in which learning may occur, it is of utmost importance to discover those situations with which the pupil is concerned and with which he identifies himself in satisfying his needs. Although interest emerges because of such factors as intelligence, temperament, endocrine balance, and maturity, teachers have long recognized that interests can be developed by offering the child experiences which will stimulate active response. For example, excursions to the fire engine house, market, post office, and museum will stimulate questions that never would have been asked before the trips. Those questions asked before the excursion take on added meaning after the return to the classroom.

If activities are to develop interest however, they must be proportionate to pupil abilities; e.g., a pupil may not be interested in a chemical formula but he will be vitally interested in gasoline for his father's automobile. Studies of childhood interests indicate that there are general trends for various chronological ages. Although a child develops interests in accordance with his environment, his level of maturation modifies his reactions to his environment. The kindergarten and first-grade child is interested principally in himself; nearly all his activities, thoughts, and contacts are egocentric rather than social. Interests of a 5- or 6-year-old child are confined to home, family, and immediate neighborhood. As he gets older a wider environment becomes familiar to him and at the same time more interesting. From studies of measured vocational interests it has been found that vocational interests of junior high school pupils are unstable. Interest patterns do not become well defined until

the individual reaches his senior high school year. Even then, scores on inventoried interests must be used with discretion by counselors.

Questions like the following immediately arise concerning interests: Do skills increase interest? Does study in a course increase interest? Does social pressure force interest? Although such questions have not been satisfactorily answered we can speculate, with some evidence, as to the probable answers. For example, a child is unlikely to have a lasting interest in swimming or playing baseball if he has no skill in participating in these forms of recreation. It is difficult to determine whether special tutoring will increase an interest in a particular form of recreation, or whether an interest in the recreation acted as a drive to acquire the skill. It has been found that experiences such as courses in school or remaining in an occupation over a long period of time have no effect on inventoried interests. Nevertheless, an individual is unlikely to retain interest unless there is an accompanying ability. We must not forget, too, that occasionally an emotional tension may prevent the generation of interest, even though the individual may have ability.

It is not uncommon to observe a child's interests arising from social pressure, especially parental pressure. This is especially apparent in terms of music lessons, for example, often motivated not by either desire or ability but by parental insistence.

Many adolescents pursue the legal or medical profession because their fathers were in these professions or because parents specify training in these vocations. Without such social pressure the individual may have been happier and more successful in some other profession. Many adolescents develop temporary vocational interests because of bright uniforms, noise, hero-worship, or glamour. Generally, it has been found that vocational interests before puberty are of a temporary nature and subject to change. Nevertheless, a wide variety of activities are especially important to childhood because they are likely to develop diverse interests which are of value to personality adjustment. Although all children need to become acquainted with the world of work, adolescents especially need to have a wide acquaintance with the vocations because they will soon have to choose an occupation in which they can make a livelihood.

### Are Interests Indicative of Aptitude?

Analyses of inventoried interests indicate that interests of fathers and sons resemble each other about as much as do those of fraternal twins,

whereas those of identical twins are considerably more alike. This sug-
gests that since fraternal-twin environments are presumably more similar
to each other than are father-son environments, heredity may play a part
in the development of interests.

Whether the results be influenced by ability or motivation, counselors
cite many cases in which a student has substantially improved his college
grades after transferring to a curriculum that trains for an occupation
within his basic interest type. It is not unusual, for example, for a stu-
dent transferring from engineering to business administration, or from
medicine to journalism, or from chemistry to teaching, to obtain better
grades after the change. The success cannot be entirely attributed to
easier academic competition in the second choice, for the one curriculum
may demand no less general academic ability than the other, and may
require different types of special achievements and aptitudes (10).

Yet we have sufficient evidence to warn the counselor to use extreme
care to keep interests and abilities or achievements separate in his own
and his counselee's thinking. Expressed or measured interests may not
be sufficiently accompanied by ability and past achievement to insure
success in a particular vocation. In fact, investigations made to date show
relatively low general correlations between measured interests and meas-
ured abilities or achievement (39:18). This has special significance for
counseling. For example, a student may show a high measure of interest
in an occupation yet not have the ability to achieve the necessary ad-
vanced educational training demanded to enter the occupation. Society
frequently demands college training prior to certification for profes-
sional competition, thus scholastic ability is demanded regardless of
degree of interest.

## TYPES OF INTERESTS

### Extrinsic and Intrinsic Interests

Traditionally, textbooks in educational psychology have discussed in-
terests and their relation to learning by classifying them as extrinsic and
intrinsic. On the one hand, extrinsic interests are those which provide
that emotional pleasure which attaches itself to the goal. On the other
hand, intrinsic interests are those which provide that emotional pleasure
which attaches itself to the activity. It follows, therefore, that extrinsic
interests describe an outward, somewhat artificial condition which is devel-
oped by the use of prizes, school marks, praise, or financial remuneration.

Children will learn under the drive for extrinsic reward but such learning is uneconomical and may lead to personality maladjustment.

An individual who works because of intrinsic interests is motivated from within. He is stimulated to activity until his goal is reached. An intrinsic interest is attached to some basic personality need and exists because the child understands the relation and significance of activity to a desirable goal. Such an interest requires neither entertainment nor arousal of interpolated curiosity for its continuance.

The guidance worker is continuously confronted with the problem of learning whether his clients' interests are intrinsic, that is *real*, or whether they are extrinsically aroused because of social pressure, monetary attraction, or because of limited experience in an impoverished environment.

### Types of Levels or Degrees of Interest

In an attempt to standardize terminology Super (*51*:82) refers to superficial and transient interests as *specific interests;* to broad categories of interests as *basic* and *underlying* interests; to fundamental interests as *drives;* and to strength or depth of interest as *degree of interest*. Specific interests act as *triggers*, or specific stimuli, which release activity to relieve tensions by giving pleasure. The drive to attain a goal remains relatively constant, but specific interests which satisfy this drive by many types of tension release are varied.

### Types of Interests According to Major Interpretations [1]

Interests may be classified as: (1) expressed, (2) manifest, (3) measured, and (4) inventoried. Some writers would say: (1) claims of the counselee, (2) observed interests, and (3) measured interests (*23*:268).

Individuals are continuously expressing their likes and dislikes of activities, objects, tasks, or occupations. Most people are ready to respond to questions evoking decisions of preference or indifference. The expression is usually verbal and is colored by the way a question is phrased or the situation at hand. When a person says, "I am interested in teaching —or medicine, engineering, office management, tool making, railroad engineering, or sales work—," he is not only too specific but vague as to school level, subject to be taught, or even public school teaching at all

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[1] An excellent definition of tests according to interpretation is discussed by Donald E. Super, *Appraising Vocational Fitness*, New York, Harper & Brothers, 1949, pp. 376–480.

as opposed to teaching apprentices in the industrial or commercial world. Most counselors usually consider expressed, or claimed, interests as unstable and of little value for diagnosis or prognosis. The significance of these interests usually depends upon the maturity of the client; acceptance cannot be made without checking by more objective measures.

A manifest (observed) interest is synonymous with participation in an activity or an occupation. It is assumed, for example, that a high school youth who is active in student government has social or political interest, or that a 10-year-old boy who devotes much of his leisure time to toy trains is interested in mechanics. Spontaneous attention to an incidental arithmetic problem arising in a non-arithmetic class indicates an interest in arithmetic. Direct observation can rarely be used by a counselor and when it is used the results are difficult to interpret. Certain judgments can be made, however, if the pattern is recurrent over a long period of time. Even when the adolescent is apparently interested in a certain type of work we cannot be sure of what is manifest. Adolescents and young adults are usually engaged in threshold jobs at the semi-skilled, unskilled, or low personal service or distributive levels. The work may be interesting because it provides spending money, independence from parents, or feelings of being grown up.

When a counselor introduces information collected from the observations of parents, siblings, friends, and teachers, he is using a type of indirect observation. Information of this kind is useful. Anecdotal records accumulated over a period of years, teachers' summary statements of students' likes and dislikes, parental reports of hobby activities, are all significant in determining the interests of a student. These data, however, must also be used with caution and supplemented by more objective data.

Tested and measured interests have received more experimental attention than have the other methods of investigation. Tested interests are those measured by objective tests. High achievement, for example, in an American history test with lower achievement in a general science test may indicate an interest in history greater than in general science. When an individual is asked to check items of interest in a list of activities and occupations his interests are said to be inventoried. This, it will be noted, has some resemblance to the use of a questionnaire for a study of expressed interests. We shall consider the more generally used interest tests and inventories in subsequent paragraphs.

*Occupational Interest-Patterns*

Of great significance to counselors are interests classified into interest-patterns or as interest-families. Typical interest-families are: (1) biological science occupation field, of which the physician is a representative; (2) physical science occupations represented by the chemist; (3) technical occupations, of which the printer is an example; (4) social welfare occupations, exemplified by the YMCA secretary; (5) business detail occupations, exemplified by the accountant; (6) business contact occupations, exemplified by the life insurance salesman; and (7) linguistic occupations, exemplified by the lawyer.

By means of factor analysis and related statistical techniques Strong (50) and Thurstone (53) analyzed the Strong Vocational Interest Blank results and found that four to five factors accounted for the major aspects of interests being measured. This makes it possible to place related occupations together in families so analysis can be made in terms of types rather than specific occupations. In the case of the Strong Vocational Interest Blank it is easier to determine whether or not a high score in one occupation is supported by high scores in related occupations. An "A" score as a physician, for example, is supported if high scores are also obtained as psychologist, dentist, chemist, and engineer.

By adapting the findings of studies in factor analysis, Darley (9:12–13) reported the following interest types obtained by the Strong Vocational Interest Blank for men: technical, verbal or linguistic, business contact, welfare or uplift, business detail, and certified public accountant. For women he suggests the following categories: technical, verbal or linguistic, business contact, welfare or uplift, and non-professional interests.

## IDENTIFYING AND MEASURING INTERESTS

*The Methods by which Interests Have Been Identified and Measured*

The general approaches which counselors may take to discover interests may be classified as: (1) observation, (2) claims of the counselee, and (3) measurement; or, to use another classification, informal or formal techniques.

For the moment let us consider the method of observation. Observation may be direct or indirect. Direct methods would include an observa-

tion of what the individual says and does in his daily living. In play, for example, does the boy prefer to occupy himself with the mechanical operation of toys to playing a baseball game with his peers? Does the adolescent girl prefer to work as a clerk in a variety store to a job at baby-sitting in the evenings? Indirect observation includes information collected from the individual himself, his parents, his brothers and sisters, his friends, and his teachers. The autobiography, the anecdotal record, informal remark, parental reports of hobby activities over a period of time, and report cards are the more common methods used in indirect observation.

It will be noted that methods of direct and indirect observation may also be described as informal in nature. Informal methods, for example, include observation and recording in the form of anecdotal descriptions or pupil questions, analysis of pupils' oral and written composition, the informal questionnaire, or an analysis of the pupils' unsupervised reading.

## Critique of Direct and Indirect Observation of Interests

The anecdotal record of children's activities in spontaneous, everyday living is one of the best means of obtaining a key to child interest. In addition to being subjective, however, the method is time-consuming and presents difficulty in securing an accurate sampling. If observers have been carefully trained and the observations made by several different people, the records are likely to afford a good picture of existing interests. Free activity and incidental questions and remarks of children may indicate an interest already established. In the case of incidental questioning, however, the pupil cannot ask about things of which he is unaware. It is possible, too, that the child is often interested in things he does not ask about.

Individual claims of interests also need consideration. When we ask a pupil the questions, "What school subject do you like best?" "What game do you like to play best?" "What books have you liked?" we are asking for claimed interests. The counselor must be extremely careful in accepting claims of interest as valid. Too frequently the choice is made because of social prestige, of environmental opportunity, or of the manner in which the question is phrased. Children of elementary school age are not old enough to be introspective and much of their testimony is unstable, inconsistent, ill-considered, and unreliable. Nevertheless, information on claimed interests does provide the counselor with a good

beginning in understanding his pupils. They have the advantage of conserving time in gathering (though not interpreting) data. The teacher, for example, understands a child better if he knows the child's favorite books, the amount of time he spends in reading, and the titles of books and magazines and topics he has recently read. It should be remembered, however, that the young child has difficulty in reading titles and authors. More reliable information can be had by asking pupils to record all voluntary reading in a reading diary.

Measured interests have been given much attention as a more reliable and valid method of discovering interests. Interest inventories, questionnaires, and some forms of rating scales would all be considered more formal than the methods previously described. For an example of the formal questionnaire used to identify interests of young adolescents we may choose an interest inventory reported by Sheviakov and Friedberg (40).

The instrument consists of three inventories containing 600 statements of activities commonly carried on by young people. It should provide understanding of the basic aims and desires, the personality structure, the emotional tendencies, and the underlying drives and goals of the pupil. The statements are classified into such categories as: (1) acceptance of own impulses, (2) severity with one's self, (3) relationship with family, (4) identification with others, (5) non-identification with others, and (6) relationship with the same sex. In terms of the pupil's likes, indifferences, and dislikes in each category the pattern of his responses and their relationships to the dominant trend of the group are interpreted. The questionnaire would be especially successful with older pupils.

The most formal of interest measuring instruments are represented by Strong's Vocational Interests of Men and Women and Kuder's Preference Record. Because detailed consideration is given subsequently to these instruments more will not be said here.

### The Play Interests of Children

Play is an essential requirement for children not only because it satisfies a natural desire for activity but provides many of the necessary skills for adjustment in life. A youngster who has been deprived of the ordinary play activities of childhood will generally have developed a "warped" personality. A teacher should be especially concerned with the play desires of children because it has an indirect effect upon achieve-

ment, fundamental skills, information and knowledge, and upon physical, emotional and social development as well.

Play interests are determined largely by physical endowment and levels of maturation. The kindergarten child plays imaginatively with simple objects such as blocks, dolls, or carpenter's tools: the direction of his imagination, however, is guided by his memory of what he has observed in the actions of adults. Usually he prefers to play alone, even in the presence of other children, but should he play with others it will be with small groups in such simple motor games as tag and hide-and-seek.

At the age of 10 a boy prefers to play with members of his own sex in games of football, riding a bicycle, cops and robbers, or cowboy. Although he enjoys playing in an organized group, the rules are flexible, and he readily withdraws should the group exert too much pressure on his own desires. Little real teamwork can be expected of children under 15 years of age. As the child approaches adolescence the number of preferred play activities decreases. The median number of activities participated in by boys at the age of 8 is forty, but by the age of 16 this number has decreased to twenty with only a slight change thereafter (28).

REPRESENTATIVE PLAY ACTIVITIES BEST LIKED BY BOYS AND GIRLS AS THEY ADVANCE IN AGE

| *6–8 Years of Age* | | *9–10 Years of Age* | |
|---|---|---|---|
| *Boys* | *Girls* | *Boys* | *Girls* |
| Playing marbles | Playing house | Roller skating | Roller skating |
| Riding wagon | Playing with dolls | Playing (scrub) ball | "Dressing up" in adult clothes |
| Playing cowboy | Playing school | Riding bicycle | |
| Playing horse | Drawing | Marbles | Playing "jacks" |
| Playing in sand | Mulberry bush | | Reading books |
| Hide-and-seek | Jumping rope | | |

| *11–12 Years of Age* | | *13–15 Years of Age* | |
|---|---|---|---|
| *Boys* | *Girls* | *Boys* | *Girls* |
| Basketball | Roller skating | Baseball | Reading books |
| Riding bicycle | Hiking | Basketball | Social dancing and parties |
| Scouting (hiking) | Swimming | Going to movies | Having dates |
| Baseball | Listening to victrola | Watching athletic sports | Watching athletic sports |

The results of studies of children's play interests can be summarized under the following conclusions.

1. Play is an essential and natural activity of child-life.
2. Play interests are determined by facilities available in the environment, by social convention and cultural influences, by maturation, and by skills which have been taught.
3. Play interests of groups of children differ according to the average chronological age of the group.
4. Play of preschool and primary school children may be described as egocentric.
5. Girls are more conservative in their play at all ages and display less variability in their recreational interests. Whether this is due to endowment or environment is undetermined.
6. Up to about ten years of age, boys and girls play together frequently but at the approach of sexual maturity they begin to differ considerably in their recreation. At the onset of adolescence, however, once again both sexes tend to engage more frequently in the same activities, but with new points of view and regard for one another.

## The Reading Interests of Children

Teachers and counselors must choose between attempting to change the interests of the pupil before he is given the desired reading material or offering him reading related to his present interests. Pupils read those things they like unless forced to do otherwise, and being forced against one's wishes provides a good beginning toward maladjustment. Nevertheless, it is still possible to guide children toward selecting books both well written and appropriate to the interests. In school and out, the nature of a child's reading will almost always be affected by the amount and variety of reading matter available to him.

Although the amount of reading opportunity in the home may promote some of the existing individual differences in children, the factor of motivation is significant. Differences in reading according to age may be summarized as follows (*21*):

1. Young children prefer short simple stories full of action and surprise. They prefer familiar experiences, repetition, and conversation with the subject-matter dealing with animals, fairies, or other children. The fantastic quality of nature study stories and fairy tales reaches its highest appeal at about the age of 8.
2. Intermediate grade children prefer stories of dramatic action, adventure, and heroism. They have strong preference for informative and narrative material and a strong dislike for abstraction, lack of action, unreality, monotony, poor style, and excessive length. They also prefer tales of

ment, fundamental skills, information and knowledge, and upon physical, emotional and social development as well.

Play interests are determined largely by physical endowment and levels of maturation. The kindergarten child plays imaginatively with simple objects such as blocks, dolls, or carpenter's tools: the direction of his imagination, however, is guided by his memory of what he has observed in the actions of adults. Usually he prefers to play alone, *even in the presence of other children,* but should he play with others it will be with small groups in such simple motor games as tag and hide-and-seek.

At the age of 10 a boy prefers to play with members of his own sex in games of football, riding a bicycle, cops and robbers, or cowboy. Although he enjoys playing in an organized group, the rules are flexible, and he readily withdraws should the group exert too much pressure on his own desires. Little real teamwork can be expected of children under 15 years of age. As the child approaches adolescence the number of preferred play activities decreases. The median number of activities participated in by boys at the age of 8 is forty, but by the age of 16 this number has decreased to twenty with only a slight change thereafter (28).

REPRESENTATIVE PLAY ACTIVITIES BEST LIKED BY BOYS AND GIRLS AS THEY ADVANCE IN AGE

| 6–8 Years of Age | | 9–10 Years of Age | |
|---|---|---|---|
| *Boys* | *Girls* | *Boys* | *Girls* |
| Playing marbles | Playing house | Roller skating | Roller skating |
| Riding wagon | Playing with dolls | Playing (scrub) ball | "Dressing up" in adult clothes |
| Playing cowboy | Playing school | Riding bicycle | |
| Playing horse | Drawing | Marbles | Playing "jacks" |
| Playing in sand | Mulberry bush | | Reading books |
| Hide-and-seek | Jumping rope | | |

| 11–12 Years of Age | | 13–15 Years of Age | |
|---|---|---|---|
| *Boys* | *Girls* | *Boys* | *Girls* |
| Basketball | Roller skating | Baseball | Reading books |
| Riding bicycle | Hiking | Basketball | Social dancing and parties |
| Scouting (hiking) | Swimming | Going to movies | Having dates |
| Baseball | Listening to victrola | Watching athletic sports | Watching athletic sports |

The results of studies of children's play interests can be summarized under the following conclusions.

1. Play is an essential and natural activity of child-life.

2. Play interests are determined by facilities available in the environment, by social convention and cultural influences, by maturation, and by skills which have been taught.

3. Play interests of groups of children differ according to the average chronological age of the group.

4. Play of preschool and primary school children may be described as egocentric.

5. Girls are more conservative in their play at all ages and display less variability in their recreational interests. Whether this is due to endowment or environment is undetermined.

6. Up to about ten years of age, boys and girls play together frequently but at the approach of sexual maturity they begin to differ considerably in their recreation. At the onset of adolescence, however, once again both sexes tend to engage more frequently in the same activities, but with new points of view and regard for one another.

## The Reading Interests of Children

Teachers and counselors must choose between attempting to change the interests of the pupil before he is given the desired reading material or offering him reading related to his present interests. Pupils read those things they like unless forced to do otherwise, and being forced against one's wishes provides a good beginning toward maladjustment. Nevertheless, it is still possible to guide children toward selecting books both well written and appropriate to the interests. In school and out, the nature of a child's reading will almost always be affected by the amount and variety of reading matter available to him.

Although the amount of reading opportunity in the home may promote some of the existing individual differences in children, the factor of motivation is significant. Differences in reading according to age may be summarized as follows (21):

1. Young children prefer short simple stories full of action and surprise. They prefer familiar experiences, repetition, and conversation with the subject-matter dealing with animals, fairies, or other children. The fantastic quality of nature study stories and fairy tales reaches its highest appeal at about the age of 8.

2. Intermediate grade children prefer stories of dramatic action, adventure, and heroism. They have strong preference for informative and narrative material and a strong dislike for abstraction, lack of action, unreality, monotony, poor style, and excessive length. They also prefer tales of

to make formal arithmetic work meaningful (*3, 16, 32, 34, 46, 55, 56, 58*).

The most common methods to determine children's interest in science have been questionnaires, interviews, and laboratory methods. Claimed interests of scientific topics have been used, observed interests as indicated by children's questions have been analyzed, and inventoried interests as indicated by checking preferred science topics, have all been introduced by various investigators (*3, 14, 16, 34, 46, 55, 56*).

Studies show that children's primary scientific interests are related to animals. Questionnaires sent to approximately 16,000 rural-school teachers in the state of New York indicated that children were interested in science as follows: (listed in order of interest) zoology, botany, inorganic nature, and agriculture (*34*).

Chief interests of children in regard to animals seem to center around (1) food, drink, and eating; (2) actions of the animal; (3) structure of the animal; (4) color of the animal; and (5) resemblance of the animal to some other animal or to some inanimate object.

As indicated by choices of scientific reading material, children in the fourth grade showed most interest in ancient animals, transportation, and science and industry; children of the fifth grade indicated greatest interest in electricity and magnetism, general science, ancient and living animals, and science and industry. The subject-matter in which pupils showed least interest were conservation, light, cloth, astronomy, weather, plants, and earth's crust.

## EXAMPLES OF INTEREST INVENTORIES

### *The Strong Vocational Interest Blank* (49)

The newest revision of this interest inventory was published in 1951. It requires the subject to indicate whether he likes, dislikes, or is indifferent to various occupations, amusements, school subjects, types of people, and so on. The blank can be scored for about 40 occupations, and the number may be eventually increased to 50. Considering that there are nearly 30,000 jobs listed in the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* it is readily observed that each of the blank's occupational scores are indicative of a general rather than a specific interest.

The validity of the Strong Vocational Interest Blank has been investigated by obtaining correlations of the inventoried interests with other tests, school marks, completion of training, earnings in sales work, rat-

ings of success in various types of work, persistence in an occupation, differences between occupational groups, and job satisfaction.

The most serious obstacle to the wide use of the Strong Vocational Interest Blank is the scoring which is quite expensive because time-consuming. To score the blank by hand requires about fifteen minutes for one blank for one occupation, even with stencils provided for the purpose. This would mean about 4 hours scoring time per blank (men's) when all keys are used. Machine-scored answer sheets are much more satisfactory although here, too, the cost is high.

There is no time limit in answering the questions, but the superior, well-adjusted adult can finish it in approximately 30 minutes. The less able and less stable person will use more than an hour. When the test is given to groups each person may leave as he finishes. The answer to each item is assigned a weight based on the degree to which the answers of men in a given occupation differ from those of men in general. For example, an engineer is much more likely to show a dislike for acting than do men in general.

## The Kuder Preference Record

The most widely used form of the Kuder Preference Record was published in 1939. A short form for use in business and industry was published in 1948. Its immediate appeal to school administrators and students lies in economical scoring, format, and marking device.

The Kuder record was designed for use with high school and college students, and with adult men and women. The vocabulary is well within *the high school level and the content is familiar to adolescents. At least* one study indicates that it can be administered successfully to eighth-grade pupils, although the less able student will have difficulty with some items (45). Norms are available for the interpretation of the inventory with high school students and adults. Because the items appear to have rather obvious vocational implications the possibility of faking can seriously affect the results.

The preference record consists of items containing three choices; e.g.: build bird houses, write articles about birds, and draw sketches of birds. The student checks his first and third choices. It will be noted that three types of interest are inventoried here: mechanical, literary, and artistic. The scoring procedure yields a profile of preference scores in nine areas as follows: mechanical, persuasive, computational, scientific, literary, musical, artistic, social service, and clerical. While it can be

administered without time limit, high school students usually take thirty minutes to one hour.

Appropriate answer sheets with a pin to prick answers are provided, and scoring may be done by hand in approximately 15 minutes. If special answer sheets are used machine scoring is possible. The scores can be pictured graphically on profile sheets and readily attract the interests of students.

Reliability coefficient scores have been reported in seven areas: scientific, .87; computational, .85; musical, .98; artistic, .90; literary, .90; social service, .84; persuasive, .90.

## The Allport-Vernon Study of Values (1)

In 1928 Spranger (43) postulated certain personality traits of men. His treatise was the inspiration for the development of the Allport-Vernon Study of Values which attempts to evaluate attitudes held by individuals. Because in practice, values and interest inventories are often used more or less interchangeably we are including the instrument here as an example of interest inventory. The inventory consists of a combination of paired comparisons and multiple-choice items. Each choice represents one type of interest or value and the corrected sum of the student's choice of any one kind of item constitutes his score for that type of value.

Six values or interests are inventoried:

1. Theoretical interests      (interest in truth and knowledge).
2. Economic interests        (interest in the useful or material).
3. Aesthetic interests       (interest in form and harmony).
4. Social interests          (interest in social welfare).
5. Political interests       (interest in prestige and power).
6. Religious interests       (interest in unity with the cosmos).

Although there is no time limit the usual time required is from 20 to 40 minutes. The scoring may be done by the student himself guided by a self-explanatory scoring and profile sheet. Use of the profile sheet points out the dominant values or interests and is most effective in stimulating discussion of values and goals.

The scale contains two parts arranged in a single booklet. In all there are 45 items requiring a total of 120 responses. Percentile norms for adults and undergraduates are provided. The authors claim an average split-half reliability of the separate values of .65. Social value is the least reliable; and two values, religious and aesthetic, have the highest

reliability. Reliability of the test as a whole is .72. Validity coefficients are reported as follows: theoretical validity, the square root of consistency, is .85. Empirical validity is based on correlation of scores with criteria made up of five external and one self-rating; theoretical, .40; economic, .57; aesthetic, .57; social, .06; political, .44; religious, .69; total, .532.

## The Cleeton Vocational Interest Inventory (4)

Although widely used in schools and guidance centers the Cleeton Vocational Interest Inventory has, to date, little value for guidance purposes. It is difficult to use because of the almost meaningless and difficult-to-remember codes used to designate occupational families and the high grade level (twelfth grade) of its vocabulary. The inventory incorporates many items used in the Strong Vocational Interest Blank and was developed in an attempt to simplify the scoring of the Strong Blank.

The instrument contains items representing ten occupational families, each family consisting of a group of items. Half of all items are occupational titles and the other half are names of school subjects, magazines, prominent persons, leisure-time activities, work activities, and peculiarities of people.

For scoring, unitary weights are added for each item marked in a given group. The authors' claims of reliability range from about .82 to about .91. This would be high if it were not for the fact that the grouping of items by occupational titles suggests the same answers each time the inventory is made. Few studies have been made of validity. There is considerable similarity between the Cleeton and Strong Blank but it would be unwise to substitute the Cleeton for the Strong Inventory.

## The Lee-Thorpe Occupational Interest Inventory (27)

This inventory is claimed to be useful in counseling high school seniors and adults. Norms have been established on 1000 twelfth-grade students. The figures for reliability coefficients are given in the manual as .71 to .93. The inventory lacks sufficient occupational validity but because the items are based on *The Dictionary of Occupational Titles* its authors claim it is valid. They point out also that the balance of the sample and the presentation of items add to the validity. An outstanding feature of the inventory is its easy vocabulary. Because the vocabulary placement is at grade 6.8 (45) it is easily understood by junior and

senior high school students. Unfortunately, the instrument cannot be used extensively for diagnosis and prognosis until more research supports it.

## UTILIZING INTERESTS AND INTEREST INVENTORIES IN COUNSELING [2]

### *The Use of The Strong Vocational Interest Blank (50)*

#### THE POSSIBILITY OF FAKING

Will the desire to make high scores in some occupations make the subject untruthful in marking the items? Will his eagerness for self-insight and for an objective picture of himself, his desire to appear favorable in the eyes of the counselor, or his unconscious stereotyping of occupations distort his answers so as to make them invalid? The studies made to answer these questions have resulted in conflicting conclusions. Students who come to the counselor for help are not likely consciously to distort their results. Spencer (42) has shown that some personality inventory items are answered differently when a name is signed than when answered anonymously, but he also has shown that answers to the least personal items are not changed.

#### RECORDING THE SCORES TO MAKE A PICTURE

Scores on the blank can be recorded in several ways. The most frequently used method is to arrange the scores in order of magnitude, all occupations in which A's are made being grouped first, the B's next, and so on. Caution must be used with this method; the counselor and student are likely to focus attention on specific occupations, and patterns of scores are likely to be ignored. It is unwise to emphasize scores on specific occupations for the purpose of directing the counselee's thinking. (See subsequent paragraphs.)

#### THE AGE OF THE PERSON WHOSE INTERESTS ARE INVENTORIED

The development of stable interests is well under way by adolescence. Although with increasing age interest patterns will become more clearly

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[2] No person should attempt to use standard measuring instruments for counseling without thoroughly mastering the techniques. Space does not permit sufficient discussion of these techniques in this textbook. The reader is referred to:

Donald E. Super, *Appraising Vocational Fitness*, New York, Harper & Brothers, 1949, chapters 16, 17, and 18.

Milton E. Hahn and Malcolm S. MacLean, *General Clinical Counseling*, New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1950, chapter 8.

defined, they are similar to those of adults when the measures are given to 14- or 15-year-old students. By the time boys and girls are 18 to 20 years of age their interests are fairly well crystallized. The inventoried interests of tenth, eleventh, and twelfth graders are of value in vocational diagnosis and can, therefore, be used in assisting the student to make a choice of curriculum and of occupation. The vocabulary of Strong's Blank is at the tenth-grade level.

## HOW TO COUNSEL THE STUDENT WHOSE INTERESTS HAVE BEEN INVENTORIED

What is the correct procedure when a student who seeks vocational counsel begins by stating his interest, e.g., "I am interested in business and executive work"?

The counselor will wish to examine all available data on abilities, achievements, interests, personality, and past experiences. Among the data he will have the results of interest inventories. Let us assume the Strong Vocational Interest Blank shows a high score for YMCA secretary. The untrained counselor is likely to say bluntly, "You have the interests of a YMCA secretary!" Darley (9) has offered seven significant reasons why this would be the wrong procedure:

1. The student loses confidence in the counselor and thinks, "How can he say that? I never have been a YMCA secretary!"
2. If the student pursues these vocations yet meets failures or obstacles he may claim, "I was told I would succeed in this job."
3. Such a statement runs the risk of suggesting countless stereotypes, prejudices, specific dislikes, or misconceptions evoked by occupational labels. Stereotypes of YMCA secretaries have not always been complimentary. Pictures arising in the mind of the client when hearing the vocational labels may arouse immediate resistance.
4. The statement may move the discussion too readily to the temporarily irrelevant factors of opportunities, salaries, and prestige values before an understanding of the vocational requirements has been established.
5. The vital factors of levels of ability and past achievement have not been considered. Mere interest in a vocation does not guarantee the ability to achieve.
6. The statement fails to take into account the problem of sampling present-day groups. In other words, the high interest scores may not represent the interests of the average YMCA secretary today.
7. The statement omits the factor of possible change of specific measured interests. The younger the person the more likelihood that change may occur.

A more effective alternative for using the measured interest score is suggested by Darley (9) as follows:

1. Make no reference to the interest test score until late in the counseling procedure. Find the reasons behind the student's own choices of business and executive work.
   a. The counselor will discover much superficial thinking about jobs; i.e., (1) information (or misinformation) regarding salary scales and "overcrowded" fields and job duties; (2) satisfaction expected from the job; (3) self-estimates of strong and weak abilities or subject-matter fields; (4) evidence of family pressures or traditions dictating choices; (5) self-estimates of aspirations and motives; and (6) evidences of out-of-school experiences shaping the choices.
2. Direct the discussion toward the student's evaluation of activities related to the interest type and which are within the scope of his experiences. Questions may be used to evaluate those experiences contraindicating the type into which the student's claimed choices fall.
3. Direct the discussion to a consideration of interest types instead of occupational labels. Other occupations may be considered within the basic interest type, that is, generalizations may be made beyond the available occupational keys. In other words, discussion may be directed toward levels of ability, achievement, and aptitude required for a wider range of jobs within the interest types. This permits readjustments of the student's plans in the light of other pertinent data about him.
4. The occupational pattern may be used in assisting the student to choose courses of study in which he may be successful and still be within his interest. For example, the normal curricular path in college leading to a business career may be the highly theoretical and technical economics in the school of commerce or business administration. This path may be too sophisticated for the average college girl who is genuinely interested in business. The plan of a general education course plus a minimum of training in basic office skills would solve the problem if the institution provides such a curricular organization. Otherwise, a liberal arts education with a short course in a commercial business college will provide a solution. This illustrates the point that the results of interest measurement must be used only with consideration of measured ability, aptitude, and achievement, and other factors of personality.

*The Use of the Kuder Preference Record.*

To what group can a student's score on the Kuder Record be compared? The interests of a student as measured by this Record can be

compared to the average interests of 2000 boys and 2000 girls in grades ten, eleven, and twelve. Interests may also be compared to the norm of 2667 men from 44 occupations, and 1420 women in 29 occupations. There are also norms for college students, those for women based on 1263 students in various curricula, and for men derived from groups of about 200 each from several different colleges. When using the Kuder Record the counselor studies the relative strength of each of nine different interests within an individual and norms are not as important here as when using the Strong Blank. In the Strong Blank the counselor makes comparisons between groups of individuals classified by occupations.

## WHAT OCCUPATIONAL SIGNIFICANCE HAS THE PROFILE?

Although norms are provided, the numbers in any one group are small, ranging from 16 men English teachers and 16 women language teachers to 185 male meteorologists. In comparing an individual student's score with the norm profile caution should be used because the general impression may not be exact. Furthermore, the student is compared with the average person in the occupation rather than with the marginal worker. It is much better to use Kuder's Occupational Indices which are a statistical summation of the similarity of the student's interest profile to that of the occupation being considered. Thus far indices for all occupations are unavailable. The counselor will always have to exercise a high degree of judgment in deciding when a deviation from the mean is significantly large to suggest a change of objective to the student.

## DO THE KUDER RECORD AND THE STRONG BLANK MEASURE THE SAME THING?

The relationships between the Kuder and Strong scores are not high enough to justify using Kuder's scores as though they were obtained from Strong's Blank. The Kuder scores measure relatively pure interest factors; the Strong scores measure the interests of people in occupations. For illustration, let us use the chemist and the engineer. The chemist has interests which are partly scientific and partly mechanical, while mechanical engineers have a combination of mechanical, scientific, and computational interests.

WILL THE INTERESTS AS MEASURED BY THE KUDER RECORD CHANGE?

Studies thus far appear to indicate that there are no significant changes associated with age during high school and college years. These conclusions contradict those made from studies on Strong's inventory. Pending further research a counselor should make no conclusions.

CAN THE KUDER RECORD BE USED TO PREDICT SUCCESS?

We have some evidence that the record has value in predicting success in school subjects (courses) as measured by grades and completion of courses, specifically the scientific and mathematical. The results of the Kuder Preference Record are always worth exploring in interviews and as a supplement to other data.

## The Use of the Allport-Vernon Study of Values

The original purpose of the Study of Values was not for counseling students but rather as an instrument for research in the theory and organization of personality. Because of the difficult vocabulary (11.3 grade level) the inventory should be given only to superior high-school juniors or seniors, college students, and adults.

Changes in scores during the four years in college indicate that the trend is toward an increase in aesthetic, social, and theoretical values; and a decrease in religious, political, and economic values. In the case of religious values the measure appears to be only of verbal conformity to formal religion rather than of depth of religious feeling.

A student's inventoried interests may be compared to college student norms. Occupational norms are not available except for twenty-six YWCA secretaries and for a variety of college curricula. Although studies show that there is a slight tendency for students with theoretical values to make better grades than students in whom other values are dominant, it is not safe to predict grades on the basis of scores made on the inventory.

The inventory may have some value in determining appropriate fields in which to major or in the selection of colleges for continued education. The inventory is especially useful to initiate group discussions of values, interests, and vocational objectives.

### Cautions in Using Interest Inventories in Counseling

1. Do not overlook the students' attitudes toward test results. If they have not been properly oriented, most students feel that the counselor

and the tests he gives can solve all problems. The student must be made to feel that tests are unlikely to provide any clear-cut answers. For the student to formulate and express these ideas himself in comparison with other people, the counselor presents the facts in non-evaluative terms, then waits for the student to react in his own way. The counselor reflects the student's feelings and facilitates further self-evaluation as the student continues to explore the significance of the facts for himself.

2. As Darley (*11*) observes, it is unwise to present isolated test scores to the student. Even the counselor understands only vaguely the meaning and interpretation of test scores at first. How much less likely it is that the student will understand them. It is much better to tell the student his approximate rank (if he wants to know) in the group; e.g., "You appear to be in the upper half of this group of high-school seniors."

Inventory findings may be scattered throughout a series of interviews depending on relevancy, appropriateness, and requests of the student. When comparisons are made, the student should be given an adequate description of the group to which he is being compared. The counselor should present data in terms of comparison or in terms of statistical predictions based upon data; e.g., "Eighty out of 100 students with scores like yours succeed in medicine." The student should then be permitted to react to this fact in any manner he wishes. The counselor's attitude should be one of acceptance with no attempt to give advice or express opinion.

3. When comparing a student's interests with a particular group the counselor must keep in mind the significance of the norm. For example, general norms such as those of student groups have little value for occupational interest interpretation, because the norms tell nothing of the individual's prospects of success in competition with selected occupational groups.

4. Do not rely on specific scores which may indicate specific interests. Emphasis in counseling should be on pattern interpretation and avoidance of interpreting single scores alone. There is a common tendency among students and the general public to think of specific job labels. It is a much sounder approach to assist the student to choose the family, or families, of occupations in which he has the greatest chances of success. Within the family of occupations that seem appropriate, several specific and alternative jobs can be found which may meet the student's interest.

The general classification of patterns as used by Darley (*12*) is helpful. He speaks of primary, secondary, and tertiary interest patterns. Primary interest patterns are those in which the student receives scores of A's and B's, secondary patterns those occupational families in which scores are predominantly B+ and B, and tertiary those in which scores are B's and B–'s. It is more helpful to know that a student's interest pattern is in the scientific and literary occupations with a secondary pattern in the social welfare field than to know that he made A's as a psychologist, physician, physicist, chemist, engineer, personnel director, and so on.

5. Do not rely on testing alone to identify interests. Testing provides one way of securing some types of data; there are other types of data and other ways of obtaining them. The student should understand that significant data may be gathered from previous school records, grades, extracurricular activities, part-time and summer work experience, and the student's own expressions of feeling about his problems. The student should take the attitude that the inventory may not turn up anything of special significance but on the other hand it may give a better understanding of problems.

There is no one simple, reliable method of arriving at the occupational family in which an individual will be reasonably happy and successful in making optimal use of his aptitudes and abilities. If tests are used properly there can be no better way to assist the student to arrive at a valid and reliable estimate of his vocational interest pattern and to integrate this pattern with his aptitude and ability. The phrase "used properly" implies that the counselor is skilled in counseling techniques and also is well informed in the theory of interest inventory construction.

### Precautions in Selecting Interest Inventories (*23*)

1. Choose inventories with regard to the age and sex of the individuals with which they are to be used.

Mature interest patterns are not fixed for most individuals until the age of approximately 25 years. However, long-range, stable occupational interests emerge during the early teens. The Strong Vocational Interest Blank should be used for adults or young adults; it is not appropriate for identifying interests of youth below the age of about 17. The Kuder Preference Record may be used for ninth-grade students. For children 14 years of age and younger the informal questionnaire

is more appropriate. The Diagnostic Child Study Record (*61*) serves the purpose of identifying child interest.

2. Choose inventories which will best serve the interests of the counselor.

The purposes of the counselor for using an interest inventory cannot be placed in an all-inclusive list. However, the most common purposes are as follows:

a. Response to a request of a counselee that he be tested.
b. To supplement claimed and observed interests of the counselee.
c. To provide vital material for interviewing which may yield other data.
d. To compare the interests of the counselee with the interests of others in a given occupation.
e. To compare interests with ability and aptitude.
f. To stimulate discussion leading to accurate self-concepts.
g. To stimulate group discussion leading to group guidance.
h. To determine special interests of a counselor as compared to other interests.

3. Usually an interest inventory should be chosen because of its high reliability, its validity, and norms. Fryer (*19*) and Strong (*50*) suggest that the minimum number of cases for standardizing an occupational key be 250 and the optimal number 500. Mere number, however, does not guarantee that adequate sampling has been made. Selection of cases can influence any outcome; therefore, attention must be given to the method of sampling. Hahn and MacLean (*23*) illustrate this point well by citing the case of using norms based upon samples of students in secondary schools or colleges. In such a case the question of sample purity must be raised. A sample of 1000 college freshmen, for example, is likely to include a number of students who have chosen curricula in which they have no interest and pleasure and, accordingly, may distort the results. Freshmen engineers in a university almost always include in their number many who do not have the measured interests of engineers and may, therefore, be so unhappy and unsuccessful that their attitude will be reflected in their responses to the interest inventory to the extent of distorting the norms.

It follows, therefore, that the results of interest inventories based on secondary school norms to predict occupational happiness in eventual jobs should not be used.

4. Interest inventories should be selected which have norms based

upon valid points of reference. It has been found that when specific professional occupational scores on Strong's Blank are compared with a norm composed of professional workers, such as doctors, architects, and so on, these professional workers show separate interest patterns. If, however, professional norms are used in an attempt to separate or differentiate the interest patterns of semiprofessional or skilled workers, the differences do not stand out. If the procedure is reversed and the scores of semiprofessional or skilled workers are taken as a point of reference, these will separate people in those occupations from each other in terms of their measured interest patterns; but the point of reference will then not make the professional occupations distinguishable (23).

5. Interest inventories should be selected to yield stable occupational patterns. Strong's Vocational Interest Blank, for example, when subjected to factor analysis shows four or five interest patterns. Kuder's Preference Record contains nine broad occupational areas.

## SUMMARY

Because interests are developed according to the same laws and principles that condition other modifications of behavior they must be given adequate attention in any textbook dealing with the subject of guidance. Interests, growing out of meaningful life situations, provide a key to good classroom teaching and to happy and successful occupational life.

Interests may be considered in relation to types, patterns, or interest-families. Discussion in this chapter dealt with extrinsic and intrinsic interests; levels or degrees of interest; interests as expressed, manifested, measured, and inventoried; and occupational interest-patterns or interest-families.

The methods by which interests have been identified and measured are: (1) observation, (2) claims of the counselee, and (3) measurement. Observation may be direct or indirect in nature. Examples of indirect observation discussed were: the autobiography, the anecdotal record, informal remarks, parental reports, and report cards. Questionnaires and interest inventories were the examples of direct methods discussed.

Also included were examples of results obtained in interest studies of children under the topics of play interests, reading interests, interests in radio and motion pictures, and interests in arithmetic and science. The value of these studies to the guidance worker lies in their develop-

mental aspects; that is, interests of children appear in patterns peculiar to the chronological age of the child.

The examples of interest inventories were: The Strong Vocational Interest Blank, The Kuder Preference Record, The Allport-Vernon Study of Values, The Cleeton Vocational Interest Inventory, and The Lee-Thorpe Occupational Interest Inventory.

We can conclude that there is no single method by which a guidance worker can estimate, judge, or measure human interest. No valid conclusions can be reached unless all available methods for identifying interests are utilized. Subjective sources of data appear to be as valuable to the counselor as do the more objective sources. Attitudes toward occupational experiences, other people, and recreational pursuits are all closely related to interests. These attitudes must be obtained through direct or indirect observation. The data obtained must be used with reserved judgment and only tentative recommendations.

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# CHAPTER 11

## *Information Concerning Personal Adjustment*

### WHAT IS PERSONAL ADJUSTMENT? [1]

AN individual acquires values, ideals, and standards in terms of what society has determined as good. When the individual is unable to live up to general standards because of personal inadequacies of capacity and needs or is unable to satisfy his needs in socially acceptable ways, he becomes maladjusted. Adjustment or maladjustment may be considered in terms of how one regards himself and the actions one adopts in measuring up to the expectations of others (society). In other words, adjustment requires seeing and accepting one's self in relation to the world, with emphasis on feelings and intellectual insight.

Common usage of the term *adjustment* gives an individual a clean bill of mental health if he is normal, that is, if he can live as a peaceful being, without disturbance, knows how to work, marries and has chil-

[1] One of the most complete summaries of the "Less Direct Measures of Attitudes" to be noted is found in H. H. Remmers, *Introduction to Opinion and Attitude Measurement*, New York, Harper & Brothers, 1954, chapter 7. The author describes seven areas: (1) word association; (2) visual stimulus (use of pictures in diagrams to secure emotionally toned responses from the subject); (3) expressive movement; (4) play, drama, and related techniques; (5) intragroup attitude measurement; (6) rating scales; and (7) other techniques which have been developed to achieve the same purpose as previously described procedures.

dren, grows old—in short, completes the cycle of life without giving society any trouble. Adjustment has the essence of personal happiness, acceptance of self, capacity to deal with reality, to work, to have friends —to find meaning in life.

### The Measurement of Personal Adjustment

The significance of the measurement of personal adjustment comes to focus when we consider the general objectives of guidance. Objectives were discussed in detail in chapter 1 but we may repeat in general terms that the guidance worker's task is to help the student to see the issues of his problems more clearly, to accept their implications, and to make decisions on what to do. The measures of adjustment can be used to help the observer identify whether it be the student himself or the counselor, what the problems are, and the degree to which these problems are causing distress. Typical problems are: vocational choice, curriculum planning, social acceptance, financial problems, religious confusion, family problems, problems of heterosexual adjustment, and so on. Neither student nor counselor is always aware of relevant information, attitudes, and experiences that influence adjustment either because of lack of knowledge, inability to recall, or repression. Measurement may give better insight into the nature of the problem, abilities, interests, motivation, aptitudes, and capacities—in brief, it can enlarge the student's understanding of himself.

We believe that no clear demarcation can be made between the diagnostic and treatment process. Measuring the degree of personal adjustment of a student borders on diagnosis, but the experience of being measured may in itself be therapeutic to the individual. The process of assisting a student to clarify his conception of his problem, to develop insights into his own role in the treatment process, or of giving the student an opportunity to release his feelings may alternate between diagnosis and treatment.

The results of measurement may enlighten the guidance worker so he can respond more adequately to feelings expressed by the client in a non-directive treatment process. He may, for example, respond to important characteristics of the client's behavior that might otherwise have been overlooked. However, the gathering of information concerning personal adjustment of the individual is valueless unless it points to some possible solution to the problem. Too many counselors spend

their time with measurement and diagnosis, and too little time with treatment.

## The Numerical vs. Non-Numerical Types of Observation

Information concerning personal (described by some writers as social) adjustment is obtained by observation. An observation may be a test of numerical type or it may be of an anecdotal, adjectival, or descriptive type (10). Other general categories have been made such as "formal versus informal," "clinical versus test," and "descriptive versus predictive." As a matter of fact none of these categories are as distinctive as the terms seem to imply. Final judgment always represents a deviation from some reference point or average. When a student is classified as having "poor social adjustment," for example, the diagnosis is based on the opinion of the observer after using the behavior of other students as a point of reference. If the decision is made as a result of a test score, the observer is interpreting the score in reference to the average and the degree to which the score deviates from the average. In prediction the observer is determining the probability of that type of behavior in relationship to what is possible. Test norms and descriptions of the norm group by age, sex, class, or socio-economic background, are always available when observation is derived from a good test.

A good test will present data derived from: (1) a sample of people of defined characteristics; (2) a sampling of the behavior studied, including a clearly-defined continuum of "more" to "less," (3) a mean (or average) from which deviations can be seen in terms of probability of occurrence; (4) an expression of errors of observation in statistical terms, and (5) an indication of predictive power based on statistical indices.

A non-numerical observation contains data having these same properties but their values and limits are usually unknown and less than observation based on statistical terms.

The great variety of psychological and sociological instruments for identifying personal adjustment of the individual is so wide that classification is difficult. We can hope to give the reader only a few of the examples and types of these instruments available to him. These range from the questionnaire containing a list of formal questions designed to get information about an individual's ideas, traits, opinions, attitudes, and aspirations, to a standardized test.

INFORMAL OR NON-NUMERICAL METHODS FOR COLLECTING
DATA CONCERNING PERSONAL ADJUSTMENT

*Studying the Child from the Anecdotal Record*

The anecdotal record is a description of observations made by people who have had opportunity to observe the student in his daily on-going activity. The classroom teacher, for example, is continuously observing the student and making "on the spot" judgments and interpretations. Unless a teacher knows the value of a written record, she is likely to permit her observations to be incidental and remain unrecorded in her mind. Regardless of whether the observations are recorded or unrecorded her reactions toward the student are governed by them.

Redl and Wattenberg (38) remind us that as any difficulty arises, those who are involved almost immediately form a hunch as to its meaning and the appropriate remedy. Such hunches are rarely reasoned out because they represent the echoes of a person's previous experiences. The memories of what a teacher has observed in the behaviors of a particular student emerge and suggest a theory as to why a student is behaving in a particular way. The more a teacher knows about a child the better he will understand him and the more likelihood there will be that his hunches are correct.

When is the anecdotal record good or bad as a medium for understanding children? As with any instrument for collecting data we may apply the two criteria, validity and reliability, for determining the value of the instrument. In the first place the method must be valid for some purpose.

*Purposes of observation are:*

1. To describe the degree of social adjustment.
2. To detect condition or change of attitude.
3. To detect the student's interests.
4. To provide evidence of progress of learning.
5. To determine specific situations which provoke anti-social behavior.

Each purpose must be clearly defined and established; a definition of the kind of situation in which a specific behavior is likely to be found will then logically follow.

By paying careful attention to these necessary elements to insure the validity of any method for collecting data, the useless procedure of

recording insignificant and irrelevant incidental behavior will be avoided.

Equally important is a fair sampling of the student's behavior. Unusual and atypical action will give a distorted picture of the total behavior of the individual as may the observations from one teacher alone. Records from several teachers (observers) will give a more accurate picture. An adequate sampling of behavior requires records of observations in varied activities; for example, in the classroom, at a party, during an interview, taking a written test, competing in a game of skill.

There is no standard form for an anecdotal record and not all of them need to be a written description. Some of the more commonly used records are incidental observations; time-sampling observations; non-school observations; stenographic reports; disk, wire, or tape recordings; and films and photographs. A brief discussion of these will be given in subsequent paragraphs along with examples. The subject of anecdotal records will then be summarized by a brief discussion of their values and limitations.

### THE GENERAL ANECDOTAL RECORD

It is convenient to think of the anecdotal record as having three distinct divisions: the incident as observed, the interpretation, and the recommendation. Note that these divisions apply to *the anecdotal record and not the anecdote*. A single observation or even a few observations seldom calls for a recommendation. Furthermore, it is not always necessary to include an interpretation of each observation. Interpretations, however, appear more frequently than recommendations. The first essential of a good anecdote is the clear separation between exactly what is observed and its interpretation. All feelings, judgments about the behavior, opinions, and comments should be reserved for the interpretation and never included in the observation.

The following records range from relatively poor recordings to those approximating the ideal. There is no absolute standard for selecting and describing an anecdote. What is described will always reflect the observer's own concept of academic, emotional, and social adjustment as well as the "halo affect" which accompanies acquaintance with the student.

### MARY

When Mary's mother visited school today, Mary began to cry. She ceased crying only when her mother came to sit by her. Mary is a very timid and

overprotected child with little or no initiative. She gets upset too easily and refuses to talk to me frequently.

## SUSAN

*Observation:*

As we were lining up to go down to the playroom, Susan hid behind the door. I said, "Susan, wouldn't you like to come down stairs and play with us?" She blushed and pulled me down so she could whisper to me. She whispered that she couldn't dance like the rest of the boys and girls because her church thought it was wicked to dance. I assured her she wouldn't have to dance.

*Interpretation:*

Susan is in conflict between home training and school activity. She feels different from her peers. She has confidence in her teacher. She feels as though her peers should not know of her conflict.

*Recommendation:*

Place Susan in groups who enjoy activities other than dancing. Avoid placing her in situations which make her feel embarrassed and apart from her classmates.

## ALBERT

Albert laughed loudly several times today while I read the story of Tom Thumb. At one instance he jumped up and down, walked around the table, moved to another, pushed Mildred onto the floor, pinched Lynne, moved to another chair, moved to the next table, finally came and sat down on a chair near me.

Albert brought me a large apple today. He put his arms around me, then went to his seat quietly. After a few moments, he got up and shouted at Gale down at the other end of the table, went over to him, popped him on the head with a pencil, upset his chair, and after Gale started to cry, Albert returned to his seat.

Today Albert started with his work, saw one of the boys doing something different than he. He went over to the desk, looked at the paper, and after talking to him a moment, quickly grabbed his paper, tore it up, and threw it down. I talked to him about it. He said, "I don't like paintings like that, they're not pretty." Finally he finished his work and brought it to me. He shouted at Lynne three times, stood up on his chair, sat down, got up, poked Lynne hard with his finger, started writing again, came over to the desk, went back writing, poked Connie who was seated at an opposite table, then tried to help her.

Albert came to school with a new watch. He proudly showed the boys and girls how the hands would move. Later in the reading circle, he slapped Bobby because he told a word. He said, "You don't need to tell me, I can read." Albert has been on the move all afternoon, pushing and poking the children; he has made two cry already.

## JAY

*November 10:*

Jay, a fifth grade child, walked to the side of the building where some first grade children were playing. The boys were chasing the girls, growling and barking. Jay joined them and made as much noise as the rest. Soon the boys began to wrestle and Jay was soon in the middle with the other boys all trying to pull him down.

*November 12:*

Jay joined a group of first-graders on the playground. As soon as he saw me he stopped participating. I left and entered the school building. Through a window I could continue to observe. Later when I asked Jay about the play he said stammering, "We were playing cops and robbers." When I asked if it was fun he shook his head positively, blushed and turned away.

*November 15:*

As the children left for recess Jay joined the first grade children as he had yesterday. After watching them chase the girls for a few minutes, I left the building and walked around where they were playing. Jay immediately stopped, blushed, smiled and turned away. He walked toward the swings and after giving a boy a push he walked on around the building toward the ball diamond. Once more I left and entered the building. Soon Jay returned to the group. For a few minutes he ran around the playground with all the little boys and girls after him.

*November 17:*

Jay asked permission to take the football and grinned when I answered, yes. He chose a third grade boy to play with him against two other fifth grade boys. He carried the ball for his side every time during the game and told the other boy to block the other side. He wouldn't start until the other side moved back to give him a chance to get away even though he could outrun all players. When the other side had the ball he refused to give them the same chance he had asked for.

*November 18:*

Jay took the football outside. The boys from his age-group were playing softball and asked him to join them but he walked away without answer-

ing. He soon contacted a second-grade boy who was carrying a softball and bat and asked him to come and play football. Jay took the ball and bat from the boy and put them on the ground. He then took the football to him and demonstrated how to throw and catch it.

*November 21:*

Children were writing sentences using spelling words which had previously been taken from a reading chart. When I called for them Jay didn't pass his in. Later at noon as he left the room I asked about it. He returned to his desk and spent a few minutes looking for it but with no apparent success. The next morning he brought a note from his mother:

"When Jay came home last night he said he was supposed to make up some sentences from his spelling words but that he lost them. I found them in his reader and have helped him finish them. I told him to bring them to you this morning and I hope that they will be all right."

The sentences were good—better than I expected. As I thanked him, he grinned and went to his seat.

*November 23:*

I gave the children some free time to get ready for a spelling quiz. Jay did not use any of the time but he took his spelling book home. (I suspect to get aid from his mother.)

*November 24:*

I gave a spelling test today. After the pupils corrected their own papers, I told them I would look over the papers after they finished. I watched Jay and he marked about fifteen out of the twenty wrong. As the papers were passed in, Jay tore his up in small pieces on his desk. I asked him for his and he held up the pieces not saying a word but grinning. After class I asked, "Why didn't you hand your words in?" He answered, "I don't know." I asked him what he thought I should do about it. The only answer was a shrug of the shoulders and a grin.

*November 28:*

The class took an arithmetic test today. Jay took so much time getting started that the others had finished about ten problems before he had the first one written down. He fussed with his pencil and paper, wrote and erased, looked around, sharpened his pencil, fussed some more, wrote and erased and fidgeted. I noticed that after he did start he was getting very few right. Finally I whispered to him not to worry about getting finished. I pointed out some examples he had skipped and repeated them aloud to him. He immediately wrote the correct answer and then went on with the next ones.

*November 30:*

The pupils were singing Christmas carols. Jay did not participate. He sat on the edge of his seat, his feet stretched out full length, his shoulders on the back edge, and his head tilted down toward his chest. He stared at his hands on his desk. Occasionally he would glance up and move his lips a little, then go back to his "motionless" stare. He caught my eye and moved his lips slightly and looked away. His mother had previously told me that he had a nice voice and likes to sing.

*December 1:*

As I read to the class today Jay was not interested. He talked to a boy sitting near him. He did not laugh as the others did. His talking seemed to be annoying to the group as well as to myself so I stopped reading and looked his way. He blushed, grinned, and looked down at the floor.

*December 23:*

At a Christmas program today, Jay volunteered to sing a song. Parents were present including Jay's mother. Jay walked to the front keeping his eye on his mother. He gave the title of his song and sang it well. He does have a very nice voice.

*Interpretation:*

Jay is socially immature. He enjoys playing with children much younger than he but feels guilty when watched by his teacher. When given an opportunity he controls the game so he can use the skill he most enjoys, even to the detriment of others. He is not coöperative in group games and will not play unless he has the advantage. He is retarded in school achievement. He has poor habits of concentration and cannot work under duress or pressure or speed.

Although he does not participate in group singing he has a good voice and enjoys singing solos before the group. He does not enjoy listening to the teacher read stories of interest to the rest of the pupils. He is dependent on his mother who apparently gives him assistance in school work and security in group situations.

*Recommendation:*

Jay should have more opportunity to sing before the group. He needs more individual attention in teaching situations. Experimentation with younger group (lower grade) is desirable. His mother needs to coöperate in attempts to develop his independence.

*The Incidental Observation:*

With the incidental observation no attempt is made at organization and selection of significant events. It is the common method by which people develop concepts of (get acquainted with) one another. No attempt is made to sample behavior and the impressions for opinions are described to others in the form of anecdotes, interesting events, statement of facts. A sufficient number of observations recorded by a sufficient number of people may be of some value in giving a general impression or picture of the student. An example of such a record follows:

### BOBBY

*September 5:*

Bobby arrived with a note from his mother. The note read as follows: Dear Teacher,

Bobby was retained and his sister was sent into the third grade. I think the teacher disliked Bobby. Bobby has been in the hospital for three months and the Doctor said to keep him quiet. I can't do anything with him. Please see that he gets a rest and that he doesn't run around too much.

Mrs. Petrich

*September 12:*

Bobby arrived ten minutes late. He had come on the bus thirty minutes before nine o'clock. His shirt was out, his hair was wet from the fountain, his shoes were untied. He noisily moved to a chair, poked two boys as he passed their table. I asked if he had any reason to be late. He said, "I didn't hear the bell." Marvin spoke up, "He did too because he came in the building when I did." Bobby replied, "Yeah!———pushed me out the door."

*September 28:*

Bobby fell off his chair three times today. The children laughed. Bobby enjoyed the attention. Bruce remarked, "Bobby can't sit on a chair. He doesn't know anything." Bobby turned and pouted.

*October 10:*

Bobby does nothing all day but rock his chair, tear up paper, push over crayon trays, annoy others at his table.

*October 17:*

The children were at the blackboard doing manuscript writing. Bobby was drawing pictures in his space at the board. Suddenly he looked at what the other children were doing. He knocked over two chairs, pushed a table and yelled at the same time. "Teacher, let me do what Bruce is doing."

*October 18:*

I had isolated Bobby from the others during reading and number work. I usually put him to work playing with clay, or looking at library books. Often I have him clean the boards. Today I decided to bring him in a reading group. He wanted to learn. Pictures didn't seem to help him. He just guessed the wrong answer.

*November 7:*

Good weather continued and the children spent their rest periods outside. This is what happened when it was mentioned that we should get ready for play period. Bobby threw his chair under the table, pushed over the waste paper basket, and fell down twice getting into line. "Bobby," I asked, "is that the way to get in line with all that noise?" He didn't answer. He began to pout. "All right you try it again." He was reluctant to do it. At the bottom of the stairs he leaped four steps, making two children jump out of his way. Outside he rolled on the lawn, he turned the water on himself. He tackled two boys standing on the side line. He was taken from this situation and placed in some organized play. He didn't stay long.

TIME-SAMPLING METHOD

With the time-sampling method, observations are made in a series of short time periods, preferably distributed so as to afford a representative sampling of the behavior under observation. The value of this method is increased if the following steps are taken in planning:

1. A clear definition of the behavior to be observed should be formulated. Typical behaviorisms that have been used by investigators are: fear, anger, aggressiveness, coöperation, social interaction, nervous habits, talkativeness, study habits, ability to attend.

2. Describe the situation in which the behavior is to be observed. Study habits, for example, may be observed during free reading periods, in a study hall or library, during a practice period after a demonstration lesson. Olson (34), one of the first to use the time-sampling method described the situations in which bad oral habits were to be observed as: (a) any penetration of the lips by thumb or finger, and (b) extrusion of the tongue; putting pencil in the mouth was *not* to be counted unless accompanied by thumb or finger.

3. Control the time during which the observation is to be made. For example, the times chosen may be: the free reading period once a week, each Monday at ten o'clock, return from recess, ten minutes each day. In Olson's study all observations were to be made in the morning at the

rate of one room per morning. Furthermore, all observations were to be confined to the first hour in the morning during the month of April. Only one entry was to be made per child per five-minute period, regardless of the frequency within the period, so that with twenty observations the possible range of scores was from 0 to 20.

In the illustration of the time-sampling record shown below the trait to be measured was defined as: "social adjustment in the classroom":

### BILLY'S SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT IN THE CLASSROOM

9:00   Nibbled candy while the roll was being called.

9:30   Put feet on the table. Ignored any comment by the children and teacher.

10:00   Rolled a sheet of paper around his pencil. Hid paper in pocket. Rocked back on his chair, noisily got up and went to the library table. Picked up a few books and came back to the table. Pushed the work of the other children. Grabbed Bobby's paper and tore it.

10:30   Rocked back on his chair while in the reading circle.

11:00   Pushed two children down to get first in line for lunch.

11:30   Annoyed the girls in the swings on the playground.

12:00   Crawled under the table during story time and untied shoe laces of the boys at the table.

1:00   Pushed Sandra's paper just a little to make her notice him.

1:30   Sang out loudly with the group. Pushed knees into chair of child sitting in front of him.

2:00   Hung on teacher's desk looking at the papers that were in a stack. Boys moved quickly. By physical force he was removed to the end of the line.

### ADMINISTRATIVE FEATURES OF ANECDOTAL RECORDS

The administrative features of the anecdotal record have been conveniently classified by Traxler (50) as follows: (1) enlisting coöperation, (2) deciding how much should be expected of observers, (3) preparing forms, (4) obtaining the original records, (5) central filing, and (6) summarizing.

In-service training in child psychology, mental hygiene, and guidance will establish a genuine interest in the needs of the child. This interest is essential to assure coöperation; it will develop only with the conviction that the development of each pupil is more important than the teaching of subject matter.

Once an anecdotal plan is adopted, a decision must be made on some

reasonable minimum number of anecdotes to be written by each teacher per week. The question, "How many anecdotes should be required?" must be answered in terms of what is possible and what is desirable. The minimum number is mutually decided after a short period of experimentation. The quality of the anecdotes is as significant as the quantity.

The form of the record should be simple. Some teachers use small scratch pads that can be held in the palm of the hand. Brief words, phrases, or short sentences are jotted down quickly and rewritten at the end of the day. Other teachers prefer to make a mental note to be recorded later at the first oportunity. Original records taken on the spot or soon after are usually valuable. In those school systems where it can be afforded, the following suggestions for reducing time are helpful (23): (1) by providing centrally located dictaphones for use in recording anecdotes, each teacher can be allotted certain limits each week for their use; (2) secretaries can meet teachers at specified times to take down anecdotes and transcribe them for the central file; (3) weekly discussions can be organized where secretaries can record anecdotes brought forth.

If the real values of anecdotal records are to be realized there must be some system of preserving them over a period of time. The best plan is to file them as part of the students' cumulative record. A more common plan is to preserve only summaries, with the original records filed in each teacher's room. The room files are briefed (thinned-out) at the discretion of the teacher after summaries have been made. Another plan is to send all anecdotal records to the special counselor or (in high school) to the home-room teacher. When a special counselor is employed he will read all anecdotes before they are filed. This helps him to identify students in need of immediate help.

A summary of anecdotal records enables the teacher to study the records and thus become better acquainted with the student's developmental trend. If a periodic summary is required for each student, at least one staff member studies his record in an attempt to analyze his development.

### STENOGRAPHIC REPORTS AND MACHINE RECORDINGS

Records made of verbal expressions by a system of stenography or machine recordings have the advantage of objectivity. Selection of the samples of expression to be recorded, however, may distort the data.

These methods have been extensively used with the interview and counseling and do provide an excellent means of gathering data and

improving techniques. Their value is enhanced if a supplement is provided to describe the situation under which the expressions occurred. Accurate description of the setting is always an essential part of an anecdotal record. Interpretations, summaries, and recommendations are usually necessary for using these methods but when possible, they should be written under appropriate headings so the reader can more easily separate the objective from the subjective data. The obvious limitations of such methods are financial and the difficulty of recording the behavior without it influencing the behavior of the student.

### THE USE OF FILMS AND PHOTOGRAPHS

Films and photographs have the advantage of obtaining a permanent record of classroom and individual activities that can be analyzed subsequently through repeated observations. The home-movies currently so popular with parents frequently show an excellent picture of the developmental patterns of children.

Specific behavioral patterns analyzed from motion picture, especially sound motion picture films, can give a teacher a much better idea of the individual characteristics of each student than he can obtain in many hours of ordinary observation. In diagnosing the characteristics of a child's reaction in a discussion group, for example, the teacher can make specific analysis of: rate of response to questions, duration of individual recitations, analysis of oral communication during discussion, and general atmosphere of the entire class procedure.

The cumulative record may well contain photographs of the student, his home, friends, and activities which were made throughout the life span. Teachers often find it enlightening to have a photograph of the pupil's present home, his brothers and sisters, his father and mother, and his playmates. The student himself is often delighted to bring these photographs for the teacher to keep in his file. Needless to say, each photograph should have the identifying data recorded on the back, including the date when the photograph was taken.

### CAUTIONS IN USING ANECDOTAL RECORDS FOR GUIDANCE

Some cautions for using the anecdotal record for guidance purposes have been cited; nevertheless it is appropriate to be more specific. The first caution lies in the danger of bias. Certain students may irritate an observer to the extent that other students may be overlooked. Undesirable behavior may be recorded because desirable behavior fails to attract

the attention. Inexperienced teachers may overlook the quiet, rule-obeying, reticent child who may be greatly maladjusted. Good observers will not put a premium on docility. They will observe all students, not just those whose behavior demands attention.

An observer may also write anecdotes under the influence of stereotypes (pictures in the mind); e.g., "All poor people are ignorant and ill-mannered." If the observer does not use care, it is too easy to interpret and recommend in terms of predetermined culture values rather than objective consideration. It is well to keep in mind that interpretation may always be more inaccurate than observation.

Another caution lies in the tendency of the observer to be too subjective in describing the situation which led up to the incident. An anecdote can be interpreted only in terms of what preceded and occasionally what succeeded the behavior.

The values of the anecdote lie in supplementing material gathered from other sources. The records provide data unavailable by other means. If well written, the records are more direct and accurate in the information which they contribute. Written tests, for example, provide data indirectly. When a guidance worker uses anecdotal material he reacts to the student with a deeper understanding than would be otherwise possible.

### The Rating Scale—A Convenient Means of Summarizing Judgments

The rating scale is a special method of summarizing observations. General impressions are recorded after the teacher or guidance worker has opportunities of observing the student in many situations. The rating scale blank presents a list of descriptive words or phrases concerning a trait which can be checked. Thus the student can be evaluated on traits ranging from superior to inferior quality. The design and use of rating scales should be governed by rather well-defined principles. The most significant of these principles is: *The specific trait or mode of behavior* should be clearly defined. Coöperativeness, for example, may be defined by one teacher as the tendency to obey school rules; another teacher may define it as the ability to work successfully with other students; still another teacher may define it as the tendency to study at home. When teachers are thinking of various definitions, the agreement of ratings is likely to be accidental. Definitions should be formulated after general discussion by those who use the rating scale.

Another significant principle is *to provide various levels or degrees*

*tions for each trait or behavior.* If the traits to be rated are to be significant it is necessary that definitions of each trait be specific. Furthermore, it is essential to provide different qualities of the trait to be rated. For example, the trait of coöperativeness may be ranked from very coöperative to very noncoöperative.

A third principle is that *the trait or behavior be readily observable.* How can a teacher rate a student on trustworthiness of independent study? If the teacher is present to make the observation, independence may not be evident. If he leaves, how can he observe? Other examples difficult to observe are: moral integrity, emotional maturity, leadership in out-of-school activities.

Rating scales are of three types: descriptive, numerical, and graphic. The graphic rating scale permits the rater to make as fine distinctions as he wishes. For example an observer may check any place along the continuum in the following:

ABILITY TO ATTEND

| Distracted: jumps rapidly from one thing to another | Cannot keep at a task until completed | Attends adequately | Is absorbed in what he does | Able to hold attention for long periods |
|---|---|---|---|---|

IS HE MENTALLY LAZY OR ACTIVE? [a]

| Interests lazy and inert | Lethargic Idles along | Is ordinarily active | Eager | Shows hyperactivity |
|---|---|---|---|---|

[a] Item taken from Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Behavior Rating Schedules, published by World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York, 1930.

The numerical rating scale permits the observer to assign numbers for each trait; e.g., 0 to 10 may represent the degree to which the student possesses the trait. 0 represents none of the traits, 5 an average amount, and 10 a maximum amount.

Example: Is this pupil mentally alert?

The descriptive rating scale permits the observer to place a check mark in the space before a phrase which most adequately describes the student.

Example: Is this pupil mentally alert?

> .......Lazy and inert.
> .......Lethargic. Idles along.
> .......Is ordinarily active.
> .......Eager.
> .......Shows hyper-activity.

The soundness of a rating will depend upon the extent to which the behavior or characteristic in question is clearly described and whether its appearance, when it occurs, can be clearly perceived. An untrained observer generally has the tendency to rate all individuals too high or too low. This is known as *the personal bias error* and may be conveniently demonstrated by tabulating the ratings and comparing the average ratings with other teachers. Another error known as *the error of central tendency* describes the disposition of some observers to rate all students near the midpoint of the scale. A third error is *the halo affect* demonstrated by rating all individuals approximately the same on all characteristics. This error is usually corrected if the characteristic is clearly defined and if the rater rates all individuals on the first characteristic before he rates them on the second characteristic; or if the rater is given a list of names on a single sheet devoted to only one characteristic. A fourth error known as *the logical error* results from a misunderstanding of the characteristic to be rated. Here again, the error may be avoided by clearly defining the characteristic through group discussion.

SUMMARIZING RATINGS

The reliability of ratings increases if the judgments of a number of persons about the same individual are combined. However, in order not to conceal variations through averaging, each rater's evaluation may be displayed in a single table as illustrated below:

SUMMARY OF RATINGS ON ABILITY TO ATTEND

Name of student................

|  | below average | average | above average |
|---|---|---|---|
| Jack Smith | 3 | 2, 4 | 1 |
| Susan Skeen | — | 1, 2, 3 | 4 |
| Olie Hansen | 2, 4 | 3 | 1 |

The person making the rating is designated by number and name below:

1. Mr. Wells
2. Miss Ransome
3. Mr. Kilzar
4. Mr. White

## The Use of the Autobiography in Guidance

### GENERAL FEATURES OF THE AUTOBIOGRAPHY

The commonest form of personal document is the autobiography which has its greatest merit in revealing the "inside half" of the life. It is, perhaps, the most productive technique of securing information about individuals when counselor-time is at a premium. The writing of an autobiography, for example, may be assigned to an entire class and used as a teaching device in written expression.

When the individual writes an autobiography he must rely on memory; thus the older the writer the less likely are the reminiscences of childhood to be accurate. The counselor should also keep in mind that the autobiographer may modify what he knows through conscious deception before exposing it to the outside world. Whatever is written has a motive back of it; for example, a desire to justify actions or beliefs; a desire to exhibit oneself vividly; a seeking of security in a change of life; a plea for forgiveness and social reacceptance; a seeking of relief from tension; or, a mere completion of an assignment.

The autobiographies of children are likely to be topical or a listing of chronological events such as moving from one community or school to another. Young children will have to dictate their expressions to the teacher; thus rapport is especially important. In any case without some direction and preparation there is likely to be little reflection of feeling.

### THERAPEUTIC VALUE OF THE AUTOBIOGRAPHY

Some students are able to release certain tensions by writing their autobiography but generally the mere writing is rarely helpful. The real potential value lies in the counseling relationships where the student has an opportunity to discuss his personal document with a counselor. The writing of the autobiography permits freedom of expression as well as freedom to omit or exclude any aspect of life. A combination of writing and subsequent counseling may give students new insights and new understandings of themselves.

HOW TO GET THE MOST FROM AUTOBIOGRAPHIES

The student or the class should be prepared to write the autobiography. In the first place, the teacher must help students to understand and appreciate the values of such an experience. One of the significant values, for example, is to augment data in each student's cumulative record. The final choice, however, of placing the autobiography in the cumulative record should be left to the student.

In establishing rapport it should be made clear to the student that anything he writes will be kept confidential. This agreement should be observed conscientiously. The student should be encouraged to write or tell about his inner thoughts and feelings, his fears, his periods of anger, and his periods of pleasure. It is true that preliminary discussion directs the thought of the child but without preparation through discussion the product may be a record of events only.

For young children an outline may be desirable. The writing or dictation may extend over a period of days or weeks by following parts of the outline at each session.

SUGGESTIONS FOR INTERPRETING THE AUTOBIOGRAPHY

Although there can be no general rules for interpreting the autobiography the guidance worker will find this medium a real source of information about the student's problems, attitudes, interests, and associates. Most important of all, the method may serve as a basis for rapport in interviews concerning mental conflict and adjustment difficulties. It has, therefore, an advantage in providing a view of the inner life and an account of past situations which gave origin to new meanings and new habits.

The following suggestions for interpreting the autobiography may be helpful; however, they are not all-inclusive and certainly not applicable to all cases:

1. Read the autobiography through to get a general impression. What is the general tone? Is the writer talking about something which touches him deeply? Is your impression one of a happy or sad individual? During a second reading make attempts to locate instances where the tone varies from the general tone of the document as a whole. Attention should be given to emotionally-charged words, to excess superlatives or adjectives, or to continuous use of pronouns such as "I" or "me."

2. Note the appearance of the document. Does it give the impression of neatness? meticulousness? slovenliness?—Do not make judgments too quickly from general appearance and handwriting because these features have little value unless supplemented by other data.

3. Note the length of autobiography. Length is dependent upon the ease with which the person expresses himself, the degree of rapport, the writer's opinion of the worth of the exercise, the degree of maturity, and the degree of adjustment. The skills of writing may in themselves prevent the writer from writing at any great length.

4. What is the educational level of the writer? This can generally be detected by accuracy in spelling, compliance with the rules of grammar, the choice of vocabulary, and the ability to express oneself clearly and interestingly.

5. Look for omissions. These are noteworthy; for example, one boy said nothing about his divorced parents. No autobiography is complete in every detail but when an event known to the counselor is omitted, the counselor should consider the event as a sign for further counseling. Omissions may indicate that things were going well. Happy, peaceful periods of time may be passed over in silence, whereas humiliating episodes may consume pages of writing.

6. Search for inaccuracies and inconsistencies. A search for consistencies and inconsistencies may lead to traces of inaccuracy. If inaccuracies or fabrications have been made, were they made with the deliberate purpose of deceiving? Unconscious errors may reflect the individual's self-concept. In any case, suspicions of deception should be confirmed or denied in subsequent counseling interviews.

7. Distinguish between description and interpretation. An objective recording of actual experience is rarely made without interpretation. Nevertheless, it is helpful to distinguish the record of experience from the interpretation of his experience by the writer. Note, for example, the experiences of frustration, bewilderment, desire, suffering, and hope. Can these be distinguished from what the writer thinks about them?

8. What ego-protective mechanisms have been used? The autobiography may reveal such protective mechanisms as compensation, rationalization, aggression, wishful thinking, withdrawal—all useful to the writer in preventing an end in social catastrophe. These observations should always be supported by data obtained from other sources.

9. Note the depth of expressed feeling. Are the incidents superficial and commonplace? Shallowness may result from an attempt to hide per-

sonal problems or because the writer sees no point in the assignment of writing the story of his life. The depth of feeling is not only determined by the degree of maladjustment but also by the degree of rapport between student and counselor. Depth of feeling can sometimes be judged by searching for answers to such questions as: Why does the writer choose to highlight certain events? What gaps in the history are evident? What events does the writer gloss over quickly?

## AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL ILLUSTRATIONS

*Joann Bolton—Age 8½, Grade 2*

### The Story of My Life
(as dictated to the teacher)

I was born in Middletown on December 28th, 19—. I go to Baxter school. I like to sew and do needle work and play dolls. Billy is my best boy friend and I have a whole lot of girl friends and I like Susie the best.

I get real mad 'cause I think it's ignorant when someone takes a friend away from me. (Joann went on to explain that sometimes she would be playing with one of her friends and someone else would come along and get the friend in question to play with her instead.)

I was the happiest ever up at the mountains last summer because we stayed there all summer and had all the family with us and all our cousins came up for visits.

I felt the saddest when I couldn't ride on the ski-lift. I have two sisters and two brothers. They are Patsy, twelve; Jay, ten; Margie, six; and Larry, four.

I don't have any pets but I would like a canary best because it would be fun to feed it and clean out its pen and I'd like some goldfish, too.

*Jimmy Soljun—Age 14, Grade 8*

### The Story of My Life

(Part 1; written at age 11)

I first came into this merry old world on September 29, 19—. I soon became quite a traveling man; we lived in a ranch house and in a city house in California and when I was two we came to Vermont to live. We lived in an apartment in Montpelier while we looked for a house we liked. As soon as I had spattered paint on all the walls we found another house. It was a nice house where I played. I have a sister who is four years older than I am. Soon I used to sneak my sister's little bike when Mom wasn't looking and I learned to ride it on our driveway.

When I was five I started to school here at Franklin. Everyone used to say I was a happy little boy. I was. I and my friends had fun in school. I guess the teacher didn't though. We were awfully noisy.

In the third grade I had my first big school responsibility, I rang the bell around the school when school started and when recess ended and it was time to come in. Then I progressed and in the fifth grade I was milk boy. I delivered milk to all the classes. I collected money.

(Written at age 14)

This year I'm down to the lowest level, I'm a junior cop. Early in the morning and late after school I stand in the cold snow and direct children across the street. I like it though. Some of the kids don't coöperate but some are really little and don't live by busy streets like "E Street" so they don't understand how to cross safely.

When I grow up I want to study law or be a pilot. My Dad has a ranch, I want to work with cattle and horses in my spare time. I guess that's all I know about the picture except I'm going to the ranch and to Biltmore in South Vermont this summer. I'm going to Bryant Junior High next year, after that to Washington High maybe, then to college. It takes a lot of school and study and work to be a good lawyer, but it's worth it.

My father is a livestock broker and he has cattle and calves and horses and colts on the ranch. He is very nice to me and it's fun to go on trips with him. My mother used to be a school teacher. She went to college. So did my Grandma and Grandpa but it was in an Academy then. My Grandpa played basketball. My mother is nice too.

I have a sister. She's four years older and she used to let me ride her bike. (I have my own bike now.) She goes to Bryant to school and takes her lunch. We go places together and ride horses and do the haying at the ranch together. We fight sometimes too but we like each other real well.

I have a great-grandma too. She lives in Millville in a big house. I have lots of aunts and uncles and some cousins. Some of them live in Montpelier and some in Millville and some in California.

I felt sad in the fifth grade when I lost a marble tournament. I didn't want to win I just entered for fun, but after I did so well and won all the fifth grade the sixth graders beat me so I came in second.

I felt sad when our dog died. We had her for ten years. She was just a baby when my aunt gave her to me. We fed her from a bottle, and we named her Nippy after a dog my sister had when she was little. When she was nine and a half she became very ill and a little later we had a vet give her a shot so she would die quickly and painlessly. That was about three years ago. Still when we think about her or getting a new dog we miss her very much.

I felt glad when I learned to drive the jeep on the ranch. Also when I

first was allowed to shoot Dad's gun. I was also glad when he gave me the gun.

I wish that there would be peace in the world and that all the boys would come home from war safely. I would like a larger gun. I like to play football, basketball, baseball, to swim and ski, and to watch television and sometimes go to shows. I like to camp, too, and be at the ranch, ride horses, and go to the gymnasium. In reading I like books about sports and books such as *David Copperfield, Tom Sawyer,* etc. When I was little I liked to play cars, cops and robbers, shoot my bow and arrow, play monopoly and sports and swimming. After high school I would like to go to college and then to law school. I have always wanted to be either a lawyer or an aeronautical engineer. Now I think I would be most interested in law.

*Boy—Age 17, Grade 11, High School*

### My Autobiography

On Wednesday, July 12, 19—, a baby boy was delivered by Dr. R. D. Bannister in the home of Mr. and Mrs.——. This day three other babies kept the country doctor very busy, for we were born just a few minutes apart. My parents informed me at this summer season, they were careful to keep me in the best of health by wrapping three blankets around their first child. The experimental child in every family is showered with parental affection, and this attention may be damaging to other children and even to the oldest child if such feelings are not curbed. An example of this situation is shown by a statement of my sister who said, "Why do you always relate the experiences of Bob's childhood? Aren't ours as interesting?" In making these observations I find it very difficult to be objective about these events in life; for natural man compels others to see only the best in him. We seem to deprive others the freedom we should like to experience, by suggesting a point of view that can be qualified by our own experience.

In my early childhood days I was a busy boy doing a great many things that caused the folks to experience a mixture of feelings. One day when out of Mother's sight for about ten minutes I worked in the garden "helping" to thin out the radishes. When asked what I was doing—I answered back, "work-en." In fact, I seemed to be using "work-en" as an excuse for my actions at all times. My parents, being curious to find out what I was working at, came out of the house and found all the radishes in the garden pulled up. Father seemed to direct a solution to this problem by telling me to plant the radishes again, to teach me that I had overworked the wrong way. They left me alone for awhile, and on returning they found that the radishes were planted upside down. The little red tops standing up in the

air and the green leaves covered over by the dark earth looked very funny. At this time I was about worn out, but the folks had me plant the radishes right side up. This experience taught me a lesson which explains the process of response to parental authority.

In religion I have always been a "doubting Thomas," one of those people who can believe only after they have seen. It is a part of my nature that I challenge every new idea which confronts me. Religion, I believe is either everything, or it is nothing. My father and mother emphasize the religious responsibility that each person should assume as a member of a Church. In attempting to satisfy both reason and conscience the early teachings of my parents seem to win out in the conflict. I feel that the individual who gives no thought to the future will have little perspective and motivation for the present. Life seems to be made up of the past, the present, and the future. To disregard either is to be intemperate. Man is evidently something more than the sum total of his past life. He is this plus the possibilities of his future experiences.

*Girl—Age 18, last month of High School*

## An Autobiography

The situation was very favorable for my mother and father to bring another child into the family since there was only one boy in our family. So I was brought forth! Since my father had successfully built up his own business my childhood was very favorably handled, my mother being able to keep me in good health, send me to kindergarten, give me music lessons, etc. I remember no unpleasant happenings in my childhood, however, since that time she has related to me that at a very young age my brother used to hide my bottles just after they were given to me and that I displayed my anger very quickly and would compensate for the loss of my bottles by sucking my thumb and knotting my hair. This act of resentment on my brother's part didn't seem to stunt my growth and I grew up with very little illness.

At early school age I made the adjustment very well. I remember my first association with competition in the first grade. My very best friend and I were reading a story together about chickens and we came to a word neither one of us were familiar with. We asked our teacher to tell us the word and she told us to think about it and see if we couldn't reason what the word might be. Immediately I picked up the sense of competition and wanted to be the first to tell the teacher what the word was. I remember trying very hard but as it was neither of us guessed that the word was "scratched." This was the very beginning of my great interest in school, which as years flew by, grew into an interest in wanting to teach children myself.

High school has been a high light for me and I have been very happy because I have not only been an A student, but have been very active in all activities and have been commonly known as one of the "Wheels about school."

Several years before I was born my oldest brother died at the age of eight. My mother took this death terrifically hard as my brother was loved just a little more than the other child. It took many years for my mother to become reconciled to the death of my brother.

I have gone all through school with two pegged lateral teeth, realizing very little of their effect on my appearance. Now that I plan to go to college I am going to insist that I have them capped. As the days progress I find that my mother is handling all my affairs from writing to my teachers to indirectly fixing dates for me with a boy of whom I used to be "crazy about." I greatly resent this over-love from my mother. Not only the love she has for me but also the love she has had for my deceased brother are bundled in together and showered upon me. My mother is protecting me and making sure that I will never be hurt in any way. I feel that I am being extremely hurt though, because my life is not my own. My mother is handling everything for me.

By September when I shall be preparing to go to college, "I wonder where I shall live?" Because of my lack of confidence, I think I shall live by myself or with one other girl. My father has the idea that I shall live in the sorority house with lots of girls. The other day he said, "Gill, if you don't learn one other thing in college than to learn to live with other people I will feel your education has been worth while." This is a challenge and gives me an incentive on which to work—to prove to him that I can live and get along with all types of girls and their personalities.

Although the analysis of myself as written on this paper may not be entirely correct, I feel that it has helped me to understand myself and to grow up emotionally so that any more disappointments in the future will be easier to handle. Through many events that have happened in my life I have found that you have to make the most of whatever the world has in store for you.

## The Utilization of the Diary in Collecting Information

The most personal of personal documents is the diary, but because of its inaccessibility it has had little use in guidance and counseling. With certain modifications of this form of document, however, the guidance worker can find it a unique and useful medium. Any one type of evidence should not stand alone; supporting evidence can and should be obtained.

In a diary the writer records only such events, thoughts, and feelings

as have importance for himself, thus we find a more delicate reflection of emotion and less self-consciousness than is the case with other forms of expression. It is true that in the diary as in the autobiography there will be gross inaccuracies but these will most likely be in the form of self-deception and rationalization.

Diary keeping is peculiar to the adolescent age, that time when it is felt that adults no longer understand, that religion brings conflict or great solace, that moral conflicts have become almost unbearable. With some encouragement, however, young people will keep diaries although many times the results will be somewhat impersonal, topical, and methodical. They will resemble "the log" type of entry which records listings of readings, visits, parties, illnesses, or financial expenditures. The confessional type of diary is rarely accessible but possibly the most valuable in reflecting personal conflicts.

The value of diaries is limited by the expressive ability of the writer. Furthermore, the samples of life may be limited to sad periods of life, and neglect of happy periods of security, friendship, and trust. Often the writer takes much for granted and frequently fails to describe persons or situations in detail. Finally, the continuity of life may also be neglected and entries be missing for months at a time.

The possibilities of using diaries to learn something about the child are evident after examining excerpts taken from real diaries. In the illustrations presented below the teachers discussed diaries with the children, explaining what they were and illustrating with examples. This was followed by encouraging each child to keep an intimate diary of himself every day for a two-week period.

Guidance workers interested in learning more about the diary as a means of getting information should read the study of personal documents by Allport (2).

This study made use of personal human documents ranging from personal accounts to critical and experimental studies. The personal documents used included autobiographies, questionnaires, verbatim recordings, diaries, letters, and projective techniques. These documents were useful in research, in guidance, in construction of attitude scales and questionnaires, and in teaching.

## SUGGESTIONS ON INTERPRETING THE DIARY

The procedures for interpreting the autobiography described in foregoing pages are also applicable for interpreting the diary. We may be

more specific by suggesting three approaches: (1) note references toward self, toward family, toward friends and acquaintances; (2) look for interests in leisure time, in school subjects, in art, science, history, politics, and so on; and (3) attempt to find the "personal significance" of experiences as they develop and change.

## ILLUSTRATIONS OF CHILD-WRITTEN DIARIES

*Billy's Diary—Boy, Age 8½, Grade 2*

Sunday, May 4, 19—. When I got up this morning, I read the funny papers. I got ready for church. When I got there we studied about pioneers. Then church let out and I went to another church meeting with my brother and sister. Some babies were christened. After church I went home and ate dinner. After dinner I went to play house with Susie. Then Gary and Prudence came and they went up town with Mama and Daddy and when they came back I was playing a game of "kick outs" with Mary. I won by one ahead. Then I talked to Gary for awhile and then I played "beat the bat." After that I had to come in. We made some popcorn and Mama came home from church and we went to bed.

Monday, May 5, 19—. When I got up this morning, I made my bed and after I got dressed I practiced the piano. Then I ate breakfast and went to school. At school I worked two pages in my workbook and then practiced my spelling until it was time for one group to read. After that we played "hide the key." I was the first to say, "knuckle buckle bean stalk" and then I got to hide it in my hair. Then it was time to go home for lunch. After lunch I went back to school. We colored a picture of the Goldfinch and wrote a story about it. We stapled our book of birds and checked our workbooks and had spelling. Then the teachers told us about the animals in the zoo. It was time for school to let out and I came home again and rode my bike. Then I ate my dinner and watched TV and went to bed.

Tuesday, May 6, 19—. Today when I got up from bed I dressed and made my bed. Then I ate my breakfast and went to school. When I got there we played a game of hopscotch and Billy won. Then the bell rang and we went in. Then we did higher arithmetic in our workbook. Then it was time for our group to read. When we went back to our seats we drew a picture of an animal. Then it was recess. After recess we went back in to go to the park and zoo. At the park we saw the birds and the seals and the pretty flowers. Then we went to the zoo and ate our lunch. After lunch drew pictures about it and wrote stories about it. Then we went out for recess and played a game of hopscotch and I won. When we went back in we played a game of "hide the key." Then we listened to a story. Then we checked our workbooks. Then we went out for Phys. Ed. Then it was time

for us to go home. When I got home we played "cops and robbers." Then Sara called us in for dinner. After dinner we got ready for bed and played "Blind Man's Bluff." Then we went to bed.

Wednesday, May 7, 19—. When I got up this morning, I helped Martha make her bed and made my own. Then we ate breakfast and we had cooked mush—my favorite. Then I combed my hair and went to school with Patty. When I got to school I played hopscotch and Billy won. I always let him win when he wants to. Then the bell rang and we did our workbooks and both groups read. When I got home I rode around the block with my friend Susie on our bikes. Then we played ball and played some more. Susie and I went to the store for some candy. Then we came back and played. Then it was time to come in. Then we ate supper and watched TV and went to bed.

Thursday, May 8, 19—. Today when I got to school I played a game of hopscotch with Billy, my boy friend, and I won. We had a game of ball and our team won. For lunch we had waffles and they sure were good. When I got back to school I got to paint a picture of a giraffe in the zoo and the teacher complimented me on it. After that we got to color a Wren. Then it was story time and we heard a story about Mrs. Goose. Then it was time to go home. When I got home I watched Uncle Rusell on TV. Then I went to play a game of splits with Mary and I won. Then we played tag before I went to bed.

Friday, May 9, 19—. Today when I got up I made my bed and got dressed and had breakfast. Then I went to school. When I got there we played a game of hopscotch and Billy won. Then the bell rang and we went in and worked on our workbooks and our group read. Then we drew some pictures and did some arithmetic and I practiced spelling. When I got home we played hide-and-go-seek and tag. Then it was time for dinner. We had steak and noodles. After dinner I watched "Racket Squad" on TV. Then I went to bed.

Saturday, May 10, 19—. When I got up this morning I ate my breakfast and after that I went down town with Mama. When I got home we played hide-and-go-seek. We got a foot long hot dog for lunch. Then we watched TV. Then Martha and me went up town with Mama again and we went to a gas station where they were giving popcorn and gum out free. Then we got Patty and took her to a party and then we went home.

*Betty's Diary—Girl, Age 10½, Grade 5*

(Exact spelling and wording included.)

Teacher's remarks:

This is a diary of Betty who is ten years seven months old and in the fifth grade. The diary covers a period of two weeks.

The diary was introduced by a discussion of what a diary is and what a diary contains. After the discussion some excerpts from diaries of famous people were read—these were of a personal nature and expressed feelings, attitudes, and details.

The diary was taken up enthusiastically but with inexperience. There was an improvement in expression as time went on. However, there was a sudden disinterest and on May 28th she said, "How much longer do I have to write in it?" She was told she didn't need to continue to write in it unless she wanted to do so. The diary was discontinued. During the time she wrote in the diary some apprehension was obvious.

There was not a complete freedom of expression but freedom and frankness did increase as the time passed. May 21st was a climax in her free expression. Television has an extreme influence on Betty's life. Her peers are of equal importance but are felt with greater emotion. The family is subordinate to the peers and television. Baseball is her favorite sport, and the fifth grade's visit to the park to play baseball was an important event. I think that baseball should be encouraged as substitution to the television —not eliminating television but reducing the watching time.

May 14, 19—. After school was out I went with mother and Carolyn down town. We went to two stores to get Carolyn a formal and get some things for me. The ladies were very nice. It is a white formal. I like it. And after that we went to the backery and got bread and candy. The bread was going fast. We had to hurry back to our car. We stay 5 mi. to take aunt Rula home. After we got home I went to the dress maker and got my dress. I like it. I thing she is nice. There was someone there too. Then I had dinner and then washed.

May 15, 19—. After I went home and played, I played with a very nice girl. Then look at a cowboy show on TV. After that got dress up because we were having company. The man who came was Japanes, we talked about Japan. He was nice. Then I went to Larry's house for awhile and came home. After arund 2 hours we had some candy.

May 16, 19—. After school I went home and get my clothes and went to aunt Lillian's house and had a bath and get ready to go to the festival. We had to come back home to have dinner. When I got their we had to go in are school room. I was very nervous. We all were and every one had a book. We saw Mrs. Smith thier we all were very happy she was their. After it was all over Jacklyn, and me went to the pluse where she was. Mast all of the people in are room was over their. Thn I went back hom to look at TV.

May 17, 19—. On Sat. when I get up I make my bed and Bills bed. Then I went to aunt Lillian's house and played with Bertha and looked at T.V.

We played baseball at Bertha's house. My brother came to get me and we had a fight. I looked at T.V. all day.

May 18, 19——. I had to get dress fast for Sunday school. As soon as I was dress I went to Sunday school. After Sunday schools looked at T.V. We had our cousins over to eat. I took care of the baby. After while we all took a ride. Then we went home and look at T.V.

May 19, 19——. After school I came home. Bertha asked me to come over there. She came to get me and went back to her house. We wanted to look at T.V. so we came back. On T.V. it was James Mark Baxter and we were mad. Then I went to her house for 15 mi. and went home. After dinner we went back for 2 hours. Then had to go in. I looked at T.V.

May 20, 19——. After school it was raining so mother pick me up. We went to get Bill and than home. Bertha call up and I aksed her to come here. When she get here we looked at T.V. Than she had to go home. Mother turn off the T.V. and had dinner. After dinner I learned my spelling.

May 21, 19——. After school it was raining so mother pick me up. We went for Bill at school but we could not find him. We went all the way to Hawthorne so we went back and saw him. Mother asked him and Red where they were. They were at a store. Mother was mad at them. When we were coming back home Bertha was walking here. We looked at T.V. then went to her house for 20 mi. and came home. When I got home we had dinner. At dinner I said that I did not like Red to come here all the time and for him to walk right in our house. After dinner I washed. I did not get a pan clean and mother got mad.

May 22, 19——. After school I came home and got my jeans on. Then I called mother and asked her if I could go to Berthas house. When I got there she was at Minnies house, but she was not there. She had gone to the store so I waited for them. When they got back they had to go to the store again. But when they got back Connie said that couldn't come in. So I walk half way round the block and came back and called her again. Bertha asked her to ask her mother so she said yes. I looked at T.V. Then went to Berthas house and played baseball. Then I had to go home. I had dinner than went to her house for awhile.

May 23, 19——. When school was out I came home and played baseball. When I was playing baseball I hurted my finger. After dinner I looked at T.V. When it was 7.00 I went with Larry. to the show. Then I came home.

May 24, 19——. On Sat. I had to wash and clean the kitchen. Then I went to Bertha's house and played until 3:30 then looked at T.V. After the show was over I went to Bertha's house then came home for dinner. When I was eating Bertha came. When I was there I played with her and came home.

May 25, 19—. I had to wash and dry the dishes. Mother and all of the kids were packing. Mother seaid that could go to Berthas. So we played and played until I had to go. We were going to bring Gill to have dinner. When we got there Marylyn was at a party so played by myself. Then it was time to eat. When dinner was over I went to get her. We all played until we had to come in. Then we made paper dolls. Then we had to come home.

May 26, 19—. At 12:00 we went to the park, when we were going the boys sing. When we were their we put down our lunches. Then we played relays. Then we had our lunche. Then we played baseball. We first played wildcats and we won. Second it was 5th grade giants and 38 it was Els. We won all of them and we were called the Bees. I had 3 turns I made to homer and 1 out.

May 27, 19—. After school I went to the store. When we got back we looked at T.V. Then played out side and came in and looked at T.V.

### The Interview as a Device for Collecting Information

The interview is an excellent device for gathering information. It is difficult to distinguish an interview from a counseling session; thus we shall include here an illustrative interview where the main purpose is to gain information. An entire chapter (in this book) is devoted to a discussion of the interview. The reader is referred to chapter 12.

The following illustration of an interview is the question-type used by a teacher. It is assumed that rapport has already been established. Actually, this interview is a series of short informal teacher-pupil conversations for the purpose of gathering more information about the child. Although the teacher had a few leading questions in mind frequently she used the response of the student as a stimulus for constructing the next question. (The reader will note that this interview is limited almost entirely to the question type.)

#### TEACHER'S INTERVIEW WITH BRENDA

*Q:* Where were you born?
*A:* Salt Lake City.
*Q:* Have you always lived in Salt Lake?
*A:* All my life.
*Q:* How many brothers have you?
*A:* Two.
*Q:* Sisters?
*A:* One.
*Q:* Are both of your parents alive and still married?
*A:* Yes.

*Q:* Have you traveled much?

*A:* No.

*Q:* You have been outside the State?

*A:* Yes.

*Q:* Tell me a little about your home life.

*A:* I always got along with my folks fine—quarreled with my sister about clothes and who had to do the most work—and got along with my brothers.

*Q:* Quarreled with your sister?

*A:* We didn't use bodily attacks. We just argued with words.

*Q:* Are you the youngest in the family?

*A:* Yes, does that mean I'm spoiled?

*Q:* Do you think you are spoiled?

*A:* No more than anyone else in my family.

*Q:* Have you always felt secure at home?

*A:* Yes.

*Q:* What seemed to be the most frightening experience in your life?

*A:* The night I had a prowler in my window.

*Q:* What happened?

*A:* I screamed and he crawled back out again.

*Q:* Was this at night?

*A:* Oh Yes! I was sound asleep and suddenly heard noises, and I saw the man crawling in the window and I screamed. My Dad came running in the room and the man crawled back out. My window was right on the street—it was a basement window and it was close to the street. My father called the police, but they could not find the prowler, but they questioned me and it scared me and after that I'd never sleep alone for a long time.

*Q:* How old were you then?

*A:* About ten.

*Q:* Were you afraid of the police?

*A:* Yes.

*Q:* Why?

*A:* Well, when my brothers didn't want me to go with them when I was little when we were down by my father's place of business which was by the police station, they'd always tell me the cops would get me if I came with them.

*Q:* You're sure you didn't have any guilty feeling for being afraid of the police?

*A:* No.

*Q:* O.K. that's all now.

*Q:* Did you like school?

*A:* Yes, as a rule, I didn't like the work but I liked my friends.

*Q:* Did the work seem too hard for you?

*A:* No, not in most classes, but it did in math. I used to come home and cry at night because I couldn't do my math.

*Q:* Did it seem like the teacher wasn't teaching it right, or that you just didn't learn as fast as the other students?

*A:* I was just dumb. Different teachers taught different, many couldn't put over the material, and while others could I just couldn't grasp it. I guess I just wasn't very good at math.

*Q:* Did you like your teachers?

*A:* Not after I was about in the 5th grade cause I didn't like kids that apple-polished and I didn't like the teachers being choosey and having pets. Also, it seemed like the teachers favored the bright students and I wasn't exceptionally bright.

*Q:* Did you go to church often?

*A:* Yes.

*Q:* Were you reared in any denomination?

*A:* Yes.

*Q:* Did you enjoy it?

*A:* Yes, I guess, I don't know. Yes I did, No I didn't, Yes I did.

*Q:* You seem a bit undecided.

*A:* Cause I didn't go just for the religious learning.

*Q:* Oh?

*A:* I went cause my friend went and I liked to see the people that went. My mother lots of times insisted I go. Some of my Sunday school teachers weren't very interesting and the classes were noisy. However, I had one teacher I really liked. He kept his classes well in hand and made everything seem real. He compared them to modern things and times that I knew about and could understand. Maybe that *is* because he was a newspaper man. It seemed like a lot of people didn't believe in it though. Now I understand it all a lot more, and enjoy going even though I don't go very often.

*Q:* What grade did you like best?

*A:* Sixth. I think I liked school more as I progressed, but it really didn't make much difference, they all seemed the same.

*Q:* Why?

*A:* Because I had more fun.

*Q:* Because you had more fun?

*A:* Um—hum, my classmates. I had more fun out of the classroom. I didn't like the teacher exceptionally, but it was kind of fun to tease her.

*Q:* Why didn't you like her?

*A:* She was too old, and she seemed to be two-faced. When she talked to you privately she seemed to love you, but wasn't in earnest. She was rude in the classroom and seemed grouchy most of the time.

*Q:* What do you like most in a teacher?

*A:* Impartiality and friendliness toward you, and incidently one that can teach. One that can hold the respect and attention of a class. ✓

*Q:* Did you feel like one of the group?

*A:* Yes, in my own little group. It was kind of cliquesh, though.

*Q:* You didn't in the large group?

*A:* No, I felt better with the little group that knew me.

*Q:* Were you shy with strangers?

*A:* I didn't think I was, but everyone thought I was shy, so I guess I must have been. I didn't like to say much around a large group, but then I never have liked to talk an awful lot.

*Q:* Did you like the girls better than the boys.

*A:* Yes, the boys all seemed so silly and stupid at that age, yet I wanted a boy friend. I seemed to be friends with all the boys, but I didn't have one special boy friend of my own. I guess I just got along better with the girls. Anyway, they all seemed to like me. Maybe I just wasn't the girl-friend type.

*Q:* What did your father do for a living?

*A:* He was a traveling salesman.

*Q:* Did you get to see him often?

*A:* Nope. I saw him about every two months, when he'd come home for about a week and then he'd go again. It was good to see him—and he'd always bring me home a present.

*Q:* Did you get along with him?

*A:* Yes, we got along fine.

*Q:* Did you get along with your mother?

*A:* Yes, very well.

*Q:* When your father was home, did you always run to your mother for things because you were so used to asking her for permission while your father was away?

*A:* Yes, but she'd always send me to him.

*Q:* Did this seem to irritate him?

*A:* No.

*Q:* Who usually told you what you could do?

*A:* Both of them if Dad was home. They never disagreed or had an argument in my presence.

*Q:* Did your brothers and sister seem to baby you?

*A:* No, I wasn't much younger than they and always had to do the same amount of work.

## ADJUSTMENT QUESTIONNAIRES AND INVENTORIES

Regardless of the limitations of personality questionnaires and inventories, these instruments are increasingly used to measure personality adjustment. The number of these instruments is so large that only a small proportion of them can be chosen for illustration.

### The Bernreuter Personality Inventory (6)

This inventory has been one of the most widely used controlled-answer questionnaires for adolescents and adults. It consists of 125 questions designed to measure six types of adjustment: (1) neurotic tendency, (2) self-sufficiency, (3) introversion-extroversion, (4) ascendance-submission, (5) self-confidence, (6) sociability (16).

### The Bell Adjustment Inventory (Student Form) (5)

The Adjustment Inventory was set up to measure home adjustment, health adjustment, social adjustment, and emotional adjustment. This inventory consists of a series of questions to which pupils respond by encircling yes, no, or ? It is intended for use in grades nine to fourteen. Norms for high school boys and girls and college men and women are given.

A new inventory developing out of the original is available for use in investigating pupils' attitudes toward their school. This was designed for senior high school pupils who have attended the school in which the test is given for at least three months. The inventory contains 76 questions to be answered by encircling yes, no, or ? Pupils who make excess scores tend to be poorly adjusted to school. There are tentative norms for high school students.

### The Mooney Problem Check List (28)

This inventory has a specially designed form for each of these four levels: (1) junior high school, (2) high school, (3) college, and (4) adult. An inventory can be made of problems in the following areas: (1) health and physical development; (2) finances, living conditions, and employment; (3) social and recreational activities; (4) social-psychological relations; (5) personal-psychological relations; (6) courtship, sex, and marriage; (7) home and family; (8) morals and religion; (9) adjustment to school work; (10) the future, vocational and educational; and (11) curriculum and teaching procedures. The junior high school form contains 210 items distributed among seven areas and the

student is asked to check those items that he feels are a problem to him. A good feature of the inventory is a space for the student to describe additional problems, to comment on those he marked, or to add information.

## The Wishing Well (37)

A needs inventory in the form of a check list and entitled "The Wishing Well" has been formulated in this inventory. It is assumed that the specific wishes of children are related to more generalized felt needs. According to a survey conducted by the authors after using their inventory the basic needs of children can be classified as: (1) a feeling of belonging; (2) a sense of achievement; (3) economic security; (4) freedom from fear; (5) love and affection; (6) economic security; (7) freedom from guilt; (8) a share in making decisions; and (9) personal integration in attitudes, beliefs, and values. The authors assumed that children probably have many needs other than those included above, but those areas are so important that some knowledge of the extent to which they are being met will give teachers a significant insight into the behavior of pupils. The use of this inventory provides a list of wishes to be presented to the pupil, who checks those which apply to him. An example of some of these wishes are:

What does a child wish for if he lacks a feeling of belonging? He wants friends, companions, fellowship. He wants to be accepted by others. Let us assume that such wishes as the following express a need to belong:

I wish I did not have to play by myself so much.
I wish I liked more children.
I wish I felt as though I really belonged in my school group.
I wish there were more children my age to play with.
I wish children in our neighborhood were friendlier to me.

It may be assumed that wishes like the following express a need to achieve:

I wish I could do my own work with less help from others.
I wish I could think of the right things to say.
I wish I were learning how to get ideas of my own.
I wish I would receive praise for what I do.
I wish other children depended on me to do a good job when it was needed.

We assumed that such wishes as the following are related to the need for economic security:

I wish I could be sure that my father would always have a steady job.

I wish I could have money of my own to spend as I please.

I wish our family could afford to give each other better presents at Christmas and on birthdays.

I wish our family could afford to go to doctors or dentists whenever we needed them.

I wish our family had enough money so that we didn't have to worry so much about food, clothing, and rent.

It was assumed that such wishes as the following are related to a desire to be free from fear:

I wish I did not have dreams that frightened me.

I wish I were less afraid to play rough games.

I wish I were less nervous around people.

I wish I were less afraid of punishment.

I wish I were less afraid to do new things.

Let us assume that the following specific wishes are concerned with the need for love and affection:

I wish I had a few very good friends.

I wish I could talk over important things with my parents more often.

I wish my parents liked me as much as they did when I was younger.

I wish my parents did things that made me feel more love toward them.

I wish my parents paid more attention to me.

We assumed that the following wishes are typical expressions of the need to be free from guilt:

I wish I liked Negro children as much as white children.

I wish I had never lost my temper.

I wish I had never cheated.

I wish I had never looked down on people who are poor and uneducated.

I wish I had been more obedient.

It was assumed that wishes such as the following are related to the need of recognition:

I wish that other children and I could decide more things together.

I wish my vote really counted.

I wish I had some say in making the rules I am to obey.

I wish others did not try to do my planning for me.

I wish my opinions would be asked for more often.

Children want others to help them acquire understanding of the world in which they live. Such a need is expressed through wishes like the following:

I wish I knew how you can believe that God is always right and at the same time believe that you should think for yourself.

I wish I knew why we have wars when almost everyone seems to want peace.

I wish I knew why factories sometimes shut down when people need things they could make.

I wish I knew what caused the trouble among Negroes and white people, and Jews and foreigners.

I wish I knew why people say that everyone is equal when some people have much more money than others.

### California Test of Personality (49)

This test may be used for pupils above the third grade. It is divided into two parts, self-adjustment and social adjustment, and each part is subdivided into six sections of twelve items each. Typical questions are: Is it easy for you to recite in class? May you usually choose your own friends? Do you often meet people who are so mean you hate them? Do you bite your finger nails often?

### The SRA Youth and Junior Inventories (45)

The SRA Youth Inventory can be obtained for junior and senior high school students. It is comprised of a check list constructed with the coöperation of thousands of students throughout the country who wrote of their worries and wishes. From the essays a careful analysis was made by trained psychologists and checked against the results of previous surveys. The final questions selected are stated in the terminology of the young people themselves. Eight major areas of adjustment are indicated by problems related to: (1) My School, (2) After High School, (3) About Myself, (4) Getting Along with Others, (5) My Home and Family, (6) Boy Meets Girl, (7) Health, and (8) Things in General. The Junior Inventory is suitable for grades 4–8 and can be scored for problems of: (1) My Health, (2) Getting Along with Others, (3) About Me and My School, (4) About Myself, (5) About Me and My Home.

The Inventory can be scored by pupils themselves either immediately after the test is taken or at a later period. Suggestions are given on how the student himself may use the results. The authors have arranged and standardized this inventory in such a satisfactory and thorough manner that it promises to be one of the best available.

## GAINING INFORMATION THROUGH PROJECTIVE TECHNIQUES

### An Explanation of Projective Techniques

Each individual has certain emotions, beliefs, thoughts, interests, and attitudes which are private and non-observable, sometimes even to himself. A projective technique is a method or test which will project an individual's private world to a publicly observable world. Private emotions and meanings are exposed so they can be observed and examined. To facilitate this exposition, stimuli are presented such as ink blots, drawing tasks, playing situations, dramatic episodes, recordings of voice or music, pictures, handwriting, or verbal suggestions of the examiner. A projective method of studying the individual is to present him with a word, a sentence, a picture, a written problem, in fact anything which may be called a stimulus situation, with which he is unfamiliar. The person is then asked to make a response to the situation and as he does so the examiner watches him closely for cues which reveal his private world of meanings, his values, and his feelings.

### The Use of Projective Techniques in Guidance

Projective techniques have generally been reserved for the clinician, and this is correct in one sense. In another sense, however, the teacher or guidance worker should understand and appreciate these techniques in order to assist and support the clinician's recommendations. Furthermore, certain modifications of the techniques can be used by the guidance worker. The basic philosophy underlying the teaching of art, music, drama, recreation, and so on, are projective in nature. Drawing, writing, and painting should be an expression of the inner feeling of the individual rather than an imitation of what someone else has created. Creative art serves as a release of tension and to that extent is an outward manifestation of the emotions. The guidance worker can use a modified form of the more complex projective instruments as another means of completing the picture of a personality. Space will not permit a full consideration of all the projective techniques reported in literature but we shall select examples of those most frequently used.

### Oral and Written Expression as a Projective Technique: Word Association and Sentence Completion

The word association test is one of the oldest of the psychological laboratory methods. Briefly, the examiner tells the person being tested

that he will be given a word and that he is to respond with the first word that comes to his mind. Standard lists are selected to "puncture" a variety of areas of potential conflict; e.g., family, home, sex, politics, school, are available (*36, 48*).

Closely resembling the word association test is the sentence-completion test which presents the beginning of an incomplete sentence, and the student is asked to write anything he wishes to complete the sentence. If the pupil responds with good rapport in an unconstrained manner, he supposedly reveals his true self because he has no way of anticipating the importance of his answers to the total personality pattern.

Sentence completion, as all other projective techniques, diverts the attention of the child from himself and he may be led to divulge deep-seated feelings and tendencies of which he is unaware. In one sentence-completion form, for example, the examiner is asked to look for such general patterns as (1) persistence (keeping on with a task in spite of failure and discomfort); (2) striving for success; (3) feelings of inferiority, doubt, worry; (4) depression (discouragement following failure); (5) high standards; and (6) emotional stability in stressful situations (*47, 36, 40*).

The following examples represent sentences used by guidance workers in actual situations:

### A Fourth-Grade Boy (Age 9 yrs., 2 mos.)

| | |
|---|---|
| 1. Compared to boys, girls: | *no compairson.* |
| 2. A sister: | *is alful.* |
| 3. When I felt my sister was doing better, I: | *get gelis.* |
| 4. I used to daydream about: | *a girl.* |
| 5. I am afraid: | *of that girl.* |
| 6. I boil up when: | *she hit me.* |
| 7. A brother: | *is good to have.* |
| 8. I hate: | *girls.* |
| 9. I am too selfish about? | *my toy train.* |
| 10. I cannot understand what makes me: | *quarl with her.* |

### A High School Boy (Age 16 yrs., 3 mos.)

| | |
|---|---|
| 1. The nicest experience I have had: | *was my first date.* |
| 2. Most women are: | *nice.* |
| 3. The difference between Mom and Dad is: | *Mom is better* |
| 4. Compared to boys, girls: | *are nice to be with.* |
| 5. My greatest trouble is with: | *my Dad and other men.* |

6. Mother is all right but Dad:              *is wrong.*
7. The thing I want most in a friend:       *is that she don't talk.*
8. I dream:                                 *of my girl.*
9. I am too selfish about:                  *money.*
10. I cannot understand what makes me:      *so small.*

## Oral and Written Storytelling and Composition

It has been said that the language arts or English teacher comes to know her pupils better than any person in the school because pupils reveal themselves through what they say and write. Clinicians as well as teachers have used verbal expression as a medium of gathering data about the individual. Illustration of the technique may be found in the studies of Despert (*12*) who used storytelling methods with maladjusted children from four to thirteen years of age.

The children were asked to tell three different types of stories: (1) Any popular story such as "Goldilocks and the Three Bears," "the best story that you have ever heard or read." (2) Any story the child wished to make up, a story about a boy or girl, or a story about a father, a mother, and their children. (3) A story based on "The Story of John and Mary," made up by the clinician, who gave only the facts rather than the emotions of the characters. The clinicians reported that a common theme, determined by the children's conflicts, ran through all the stories told by an individual child. By listening to the child it was possible to learn something about the child's anxiety, his wishes, and his fears.

A variation of verbal expression is the story-completion method which has the advantage of controlling or directing the response to some extent. The teacher or other guidance worker selects a topic to which may exist emotional attachments. Racial prejudice, hatred toward a father, financial problems, or a broken home are typical examples.

That a teacher with a definite purpose can direct her pupils into writing activities which will reflect their emotions, wishes, and interests, is readily demonstrated in the following examples:

### HOW DICK MADE FRIENDS

(Written by a 10-year-old girl within a week after moving to a new school. Note the projection of her problem to a supposedly anonymous character.)

Dick lived in his new home a week and didn't have any new friends. Dick was bashful. All the boys around Dick's house were going for a bike

*Fear I Have*

I have a great fear of all out war with Russia. I'm afraid of temptation overcome me. I fear the end of the world.

*How I Feel About the Fights and Quarrels I Get Into*

I don't get into many fights and quarels. If it concerns the church I tell what I know which isn't very much. If it is just an ordinary everyday quarel I generally just listen and don't pay much attention.

*The Most Pleasant Experience I Have Ever Had*

Going on the winer hike the explorers week when we went on a mountain trip.

The use of sociodrama is an excellent device to gain information about the child. This technique is explained in detail in chapter 20 and will, therefore, not be repeated here.

*The Use of Creativity in the Fine Arts as a Study of Personality*

Creativity in the fine arts can be successfully used to prevent, diagnose, and treat various forms of maladjustment. It follows, therefore, that it has significant mental-hygiene value. Trained personnel have been able to use creative work to uncover acute and deep-seated problems often earlier than they sometimes are expressed in overt behavior. The classroom teacher can frequently detect serious neurotic disturbance and through referral to the therapist may shorten the time of treatment.

The creative arts can conveniently be classified in relation to the type of materials used. Clay, paste, dough, cold cream, and finger paints may be classified as unstructured materials. Crayons, brush paints, pens, and pencils, may be considered as semistructured materials; and dolls, toys, dollhouses, furniture, may be categorized as well-structured materials. We cannot discuss these in detail but from each classification we shall select one medium for illustration: Finger-painting (unstructured materials); drawing-a-man (semistructured materials) and play (well-structured materials).

FINGER-PAINTING

Finger-painting has value both as a diagnostic and therapeutic medium. Because it minimizes motor limitations and because it is not influenced too much by social pressure it permits a genuine projection of the personality. Individuals like to do it; thus it establishes good

rapport. It tends to elicit strong emotions and although it is not dependent upon language factors it elicits spontaneous verbalizations, often in the form of fantasy.

Because it permits a direct expression of immediate feelings it enhances the examiner's understanding of concept formation, changes of emotion, and tendency to use symbols in the content. Used over a period of years finger-painting may be employed as an index to emotional growth.

The whole finger-painting technique has been conveniently divided into three major aspects: (1) the performance observation, including the visible emotional, behavioral, and physical manifestations; (2) the painting analytics dealing with the finger-painting itself and broken into eight subdivisions of handedness; color, motion, rhythm, texture, composition, order, and symbolism; and (3) the verbalization, including the story the individual attaches to or uses to explain his finger-painting product (23).

DRAWING-A-MAN

The study of the personality of a child through his drawing a man was first practically demonstrated by the use of Goodenough's Draw-A-Man Test (20), by which is determined a child's mental age.

Children's drawing of a man (any drawing, in fact) has a developmental aspect in that definite stages of maturation can be observed. Three general developmental stages are discernible: (1) the scribbling stage, characterized by random dots and dashes, lines, whirls, and circular-tending forms; (2) subjective representation of what is seen rather than what is felt, such as drawing of the human face, the human form, or almost any simple object; and (3) realistic representation characterized by a continuance of subjective, decoratively-printed words, human forms, and conventional designs (44).

The drawing itself as well as the verbal, expressive, and motor behavior are indicative in giving the examiner a general impression. Verbal comments, facial expression, playing with the paper or pencil, biting finger nails, all provide cues leading to conclusions. The final drawing may be a projection of self-concept, a projection of attitudes toward someone else, a projection of ideal self-image, a result of external circumstance, an expression of habit patterns, an expression of emotional tone, or an expression of attitudes toward society in general (1).

**PLAY**

The use of play and play materials as a guidance technique have been discussed in chapter 20. We shall therefore be brief in our reference here.

Through the medium of play we may try to see the child's side of the story. We are interested in his pleasures, interests, dissatisfactions, complaints, and especially in what has caused his apparent unhappiness. A study of his behavior in play is important, but the data gathered serve only to supplement those gathered from other sources.

The play interview in which the child is provided a number of opportunities to express his feelings and thoughts through the medium of toys is useful in gathering information. Although the child is given every opportunity to play freely with the toys, the play situations are usually planned and controlled and can be repeated as frequently as desirable. Play can be used to provide diagnostic understanding, especially of the unconscious self, or it can be used to establish a working relationship between the child and those who are trying to assist him.

## The Use of Pictures (and other Visual Stimuli) in Studying the Personality

### THE RORSCHACH INK-BLOT TEST

The Swiss psychiatrist, Rorschach, noticed that his patients revealed many of their characteristics by their manner of seeing objects in a cloud or in an ink blot. As early as 1911 he began to experiment with the *responses of his patients to a set of ink blots.* Eventually a test was devised consisting of ten cards on which have been placed ten blots, some in black and gray, some with colors added. These cards are presented one at a time to the subject, who is seated with his back to the examiner or facing him. As each ink blot is presented the person is asked: "What do you see? What can this be?" His oral comments are taken down verbatim by the examiner. A record is also kept of bodily movements, evidence of emotion, length of time it takes him to respond, and hesitations in his speech.

The clinician watches for four principal characteristic responses: (1) Does he regard it as a whole or does he see details primarily? (2) Is his way of regarding it determined more by its form, by its arousal of kinesthesis, or by its color? (3) Does he see animals, human

beings, plants, non-living objects, or landscapes? and (4) Are the responses original or common? Under each of these categories are various subdivisions which are given different weightings. The weightings can be gathered and tabulated in a numerical form. The examiner inspects the data carefully, much as he would a picture, until he can get a general impression of the individual's temperament, his expressive movements, his interests and special abilities, and his attitude toward life. In the test there is a tendency to perceive the whole from detail; a child's ability to perceive a figure against the background of the rest of the ink-blot pattern is suggestive of his "drive structure."

## THE THEMATIC APPERCEPTION TEST (30, 31, 32)

The Thematic Apperception Test, developed at the Harvard Psychological Clinic, consists of ten pictures for men only, ten for women only, and ten for both men and women. The pictures are of ambiguous scenes and as they are shown one at a time the individual is asked to make up a story about each one.

As the subject proceeds with his story, the examiner may encourage him to go ahead or may ask him questions to bring out certain points which he has not mentioned. The examiner watches for hesitation, nervousness, verbal construction, and the like.

Theoretically, in the construction of stories around ambiguous picture stimuli, the individual organizes material from his own personal experience and projects conscious and unconscious impulses, defenses and conflicts, personal needs—in brief he reveals his personality in the stories he tells.

## *The Utilization of Sociometric Techniques in Collecting Data (18, 25, 29)*

### DEFINITION OF SOCIOMETRY

Sociometry is a method for measuring the extent of acceptance or rejection between individuals in groups. By means of it we can discover, describe, and evaluate how a student is regarded by a group of which he is a member. It assists in the identification of students who need aid in achieving the kind of group life which will contribute to their personal development.

Stimulation of the presence of other individuals has an effect on learning the skills of reading, writing, and arithmetic just as surely

as it does on learning the skills of group planning, coöperation, and participation. Boys and girls have certain values among themselves, often unknown to the teacher. The emotional climate colored by loves and hates and loyalties and standards, can often be revealed through sociometric procedures.

## THE SOCIOMETRIC TEST

The sociometric test is a simple method for revealing actual and natural groups or isolations within a larger group. It involves a spontaneous choice of associates. The test is a form of question devised by the examiner which will elicit from the members of the group expressions of their true feelings regarding the other members. Typical questions which have been used are these: (1) We are going to rearrange the seating in this class. You may sit by whom you wish. Write down the name of whom you would like first-best, then whom you would like second-best. (2) Who are your three best friends in this group? (3) With which three students in our class do you enjoy being? (4) Which student would you like to have on a committee with you? (5) With whom would you prefer to work in the science laboratory?

Validity of the resulting data depends greatly on the degree of rapport between examiner and examined. In the sociometric test students must feel assured that their replies will be kept confidential. They must feel, too, that the question has sense and value and that something will be done with the results. In the actual situation of giving the test the examiner should use words which can be easily understood, express interest and enthusiasm, and keep the atmosphere as casual as possible. Enough time should be allowed and some statement made on how soon the test results will be used (25)

A convenient method to administer this test to children who can write is to provide each student with a 3 x 5 inch card. The student writes his own name on one side and on the other side he writes the figures 1, 2, and 3 which represent choices. By the numbers he writes the names of the students in order of first, second, and third choices. After the test it is convenient to arrange the cards in alphabetical order, according to the student's last name.

Work sheets can then be used in which the students' choices are tabulated. In Figure 1 it will be noted that pupils have been given a code number. "Choosers" are listed in the vertical column and "chosen" in the horizontal column. Total choices received by each pupil are

shown at the bottom. Girls may be coded in even numbers and boys in odd numbers.

| Chosen<br>Chooser | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 6 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 7 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 8 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 9 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 10 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | |
| First Choice | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Second Choice | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Third Choice | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | | | | | | | | | | | |

Figure 1. Sociometric Tabulation of Test Data.

Some investigators have found it convenient to give first-choices a rating of 5, second choices a rating of 3, and third choices a rating of 1.

The data from the work sheet can be translated into a sociogram, i.e., portrayed graphically as shown in Figure 2. On this chart circles symbolize boys and triangles symbolize girls. Each symbol contains the name of a given student, and his choice shown by an arrow pointing from himself, the chooser, to the one he chooses. Separating the students into three or four separate groups will facilitate the drawing of the sociogram. Those receiving the highest total score would appear near the middle of the sociogram while those receiving least or no total would be placed on the periphery. If desired, the examiner may use different kinds of lines or colors to designate first, second, or third choices. For example a solid line for first choice, a dash line for second choice, and a dotted line for third choice.

HOW TO INTERPRET THE SOCIOGRAM

Either the raw data from the work sheet or the sociogram may be used as the basis for interpretation. The following suggestions may be helpful:
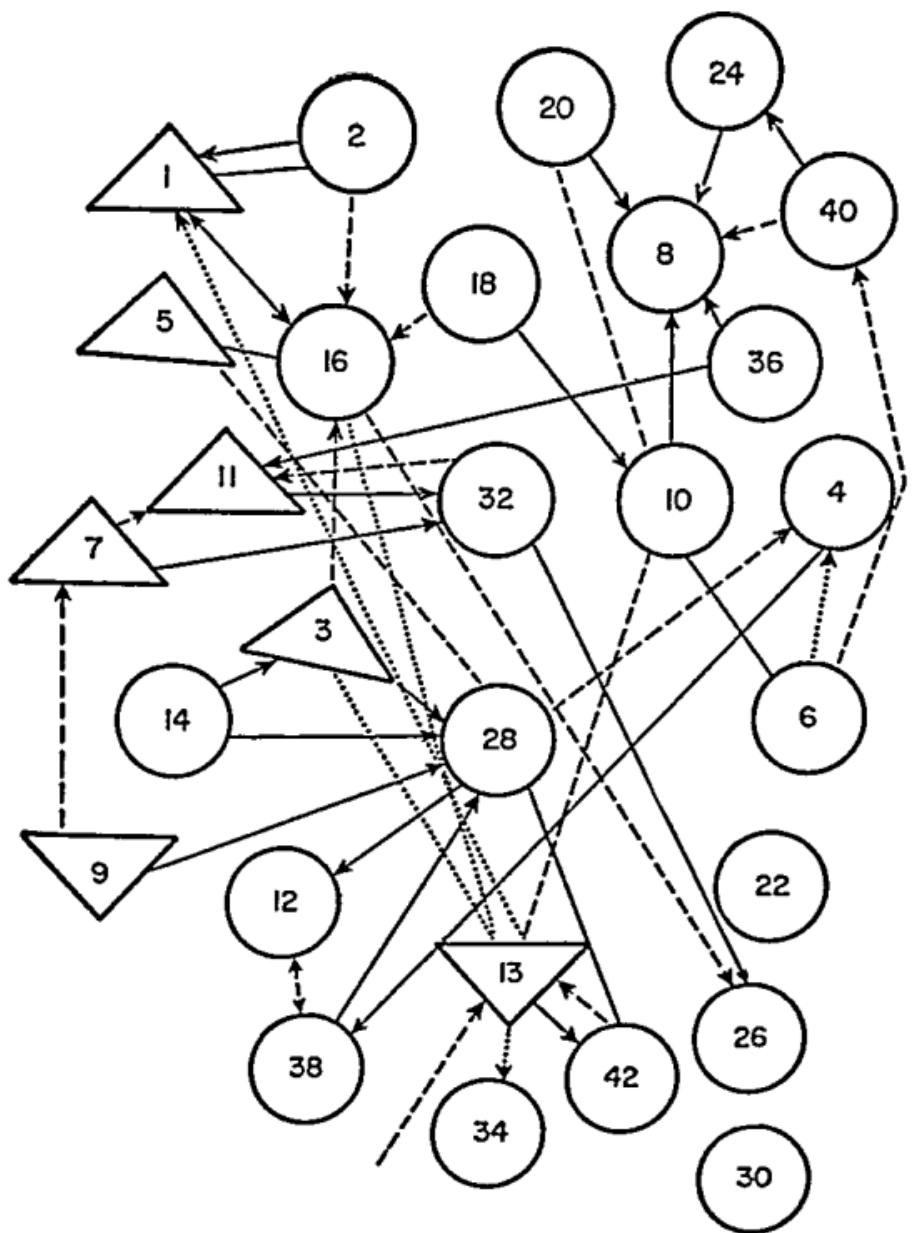
Figure 2. A Sociogram

1. Concentrate on one person and make a detailed view of the choices made and received. Are the results as you expected? Do certain pupils turn out to have been chosen, overlooked, or rejected?

2. Look for the isolates and the stars. An isolate is a person whose choices are not reciprocated and a star is one who receives the most choices. Attempts should be made to discover the reasons for status. For example in the case of the isolate is he new to the group? Shy? Domineering?

3. Discover mutual or reciprocal choices. Are these the result of kin relation? Neighborhood propinquity? Quality of interests, skills, maturity?

4. Look for triangles or other evidence of an in-group. The clique pattern shows sharp divisions of children who choose only their own set. Cliques are often common when only one choice is given. Cliques frequently accompany antagonisms, disagreements, and lack of coöperation.

5. Look for general impressions. When the sociogram looks shaggy and lacks focus there is likely to be similar looseness and lack of direction in the group. The teacher may have difficulty in organizing the group for joint effort. The teacher may improve this type of group structure by providing opportunities for children's feelings of one another to function openly; by avoiding the exploitation of the extrovert; by introducing more committee work; by preventing members of closed cliques from continuing to be conspicuously off by themselves; and by varying the composition of each committee so as to make it a cosmopolitan mixture.

## VARIATIONS OF THE SOCIOMETRIC TECHNIQUE

One of the oldest devices of the sociometric technique is that used by Hartshorne and May (22) in their "guess who" test. A series of snapshot descriptions of students are given, ranging from complimentary to definitely not complimentary, and the individual taking the test writes down the name of any student whom he thinks the description fits. A modern variation of this test is described in the scale discussed in the subsequent paragraph.

The Ohio Social Acceptance Scale is a combination of the usual rating scale and the sociometric technique. In using this scale each student is asked to give a reaction to each of the other members in the

| | |
|---|---|
| Fred | |
| Dorothy | |
| Gary | |
| Joe | |
| Dick | |
| Sally | |
| Jean | |
| Joan | |
| Janice | |
| Susan | |
| John | |
| Ann | |
| Louis | |
| Jack | |
| Merlen | |
| David | |
| Bryan | |
| June | |
| Judy | |
| Donald | |
| George | |
| Emma | |
| Carl | |
| Tom | |
| Roger | |
| Ben | |
| Jim | |
| Nancy | |
| Gerald | |
| Frank | |
| Barbara | |
| Gene | |
| Jane | |
| Paul | |
| Vivian | |
| Clara | |
| Doug | |
| Louise | |
| Garth | |
| Joy | |
| Gay | |
| Mary | |

*Directions:* On this sheet you will find the name of every student in the eighth grade. We want you to put a number after every name. The number you put down should be the number of one of the following paragraphs.

1. *My very best friends.* The names I put a number 1 by are my very best friends (or I would like them to be). I would like to spend a lot of time with them. I would tell them secrets and I would do a lot of things to keep them out of trouble. I could tell them my troubles and I would enjoy going places with them.

2. *My other friends.* I will put a number 2 by the names of people that I like to work with and talk to. I would invite them to parties and picnics and would want them to be my friend.

3. *Not friends but they are all right.* I put a number 3 by those I would work on committees with and be in plays with and have on the same team that I am on. They are all right, but I don't consider them my friends.

4. *Don't know them.* I put a number 4 beside these people—maybe I would like them and maybe I wouldn't. I don't know them well enough to say.

5. *Don't care for them.* A number 5 is for those I say hello to when I see them, but I do not enjoy being with them. I might associate with them if I had nothing else to do, but I don't care for them very much.

6. *Dislike them.* I speak to these people (a number 6) only when I must. I don't like to work with them and I don't like to talk to them.

Figure 3. Sample of Social Acceptance Scale.

group in terms of a six-point scale. A modification of this technique is shown in Figure 3.

The Horace-Mann-Lincoln Institute Social Distance Scale provides for a listing of all class members arranged horizontally on top of a wide sheet and a space given for the individual to check degree of preference or rejection on a scale ranging from one to five. Pupils in Position One have been chosen as best friends, and those in Position Five are definitely not desired for company. When the data of a sociometric technique have been gathered, they can be summarized in the form of a sociogram.

## SUMMARY

An individual is adjusted if he can live as a peaceful being, without disturbance, knows how to work, marries and has children, grows old—in short completes the cycle of life without giving society any trouble. Adjustment has the essence of personal happiness, acceptance of self, capacity with reality, to work, to have friends—to find something in life.

A significant aspect of guidance is the measurement of adjustment so the results may be used to resolve a personality problem. The measurements of adjustment as discussed in this chapter were considered in order, as follows: anecdotal record, stenographic reports and machine records, films and photographs, rating scales, autobiography, diary, and interview; adjustment questionnaires and inventories, and projective and expressive techniques. Typical questionnaires and inventories are: The Bernreuter Personality Inventory, The Bell Adjustment Inventory, The Mooney Problem Check List, The Nebraska Personality Inventory, The Washburne Social Adjustment Inventory, The Wishing Well, The Maller Case Inventory, The California Test of Personality, Pintner's Aspects of Personality, Brown Personality Inventory for Children, Rogers' Test of Personality Adjustment, and the SRA Youth Inventory.

Under projective and expressive techniques were included examples of oral and written expression, finger-painting, drawing-a-man, play, Rorschach Ink-Blot Test, Thematic Apperception Test, and sociodrama. Sociometric techniques were also given considerable attention as devices for collecting information about the child.

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PART III

# TECHNIQUES FOR USING INFORMATION ABOUT THE STUDENT

# Counseling Concepts and Theories

WITH some justification, counseling is frequently referred to as the "heart" of the guidance program. Focused upon this process is the effective use of all the information gathered about the individual whereby self-insight and self-analysis can precede decisions, choices, and action. During counseling the individual is aided in making choices that will lead to self-direction and enhance his total growth and development. Without adequate counseling much of the time, talent, and energy that has gone into collecting information will go for naught. Because such a service is so important many books have been written on the subject and about the people who are engaged in it. It is not within our scope to include all the phases of counseling in detail, but we should like to discuss the various concepts involved and in a later chapter observe some effective methods of solving practical counseling problems.

## What Is Counseling? ✓

To arrive at a definition of counseling we must consider many conflicting opinions and concepts. While too little is known about counseling or the results or products of the process, many different ideas and points of view have arisen concerning them. In hope of arriving at a clear concept of counseling, it seems imperative that we contrast it to other activities in school or clinical work. Specifically we must answer some of the following questions: (1) Is counseling the same as good

teaching? (2) Is counseling synonymous with therapy? (3) Is counseling synonymous with interviewing? and (4) Does group counseling exist? If these questions are definitely and specifically answered, we shall arrive at a clearer understanding of the term. At the outset it may appear that we have the negative approach, presuming to define the term by stating what it is not. Be that as it may, a further analysis of the question may clarify the issues involved. Let us first cite the requirements of counseling as stated by Williamson (58) in arriving at a definition. He indicates that the counseling concept is dependent upon references to the nature of the problems, the techniques used, and the purposes or objectives.

## IS COUNSELING THE SAME AS GOOD TEACHING?

Recurrent implications that counseling is nothing more than good teaching or that good teaching is counseling can frequently be found in guidance literature. Throughout this book the writers have emphasized the role of teachers in the guidance program, not because teaching and counseling are synonymous, but because all personnel should be involved in an effective guidance program. If all students are going to benefit by guidance services, the classroom teacher has a vital function. In chapter 2 we referred to some of the specific tasks of teachers in the guidance program, but here we shall refer to a summary made by Shanks, *et al.* (50) of the contributions that teachers make to personnel work. They conclude that most teaching is done in groups in the assumption that students are more alike than they really are; whereas counseling is done in a one-to-one relationship that seeks to assist the student as a unique individual.

It is apparent that most of the teachers' problems center around intellectual or academic areas, while counseling is concerned with adjustment. While such problems are by no means discrete or unrelated the emphasis by the respective disciplines holds true. The teacher encounters student's difficulty in mastering the course content while the counselor encounters problems related to social and emotional adjustment.[1]

The teacher's techniques and training are focused upon the use of effective methods in presenting subject matter such as lectures, discussions, panels, committee work, field trips, and using audio-visual

[1] The authors recognize that this is true only in the traditional sense. Good modern teaching integrates content with the social and emotional life of the student.

materials. Counselor techniques and training are focused upon the psychological make-up and characteristics of the student, testing techniques, uses of occupational information, and diagnostic tools. In their respective roles both teacher and professional counselor contribute to the total development of the pupil.

To clarify further the differences between counseling and teaching, here are a few of the contrasts illustrated by Erickson *(23)*.

| TEACHING | COUNSELING |
|---|---|
| 1. The subject matter outcomes (or objectives) to be obtained are known by the teacher. | 1. The subject matter of the interview is unknown to the counselor and sometimes unknown to the counselee. |
| 2. Teaching starts with a group relationship and individual contacts grow out of and return to group activities. | 2. Counseling starts with an individual relationship and moves to group situations for greater efficiency or to supplement the individual process. |
| 3. The teacher uses skill in group techniques with great frequency, while interviewing skills are used less often. | 3. The counselor uses interviewing skills as a basic technique. |
| 4. The teacher needs to increase her information relating to instructional activities. | 4. The counselor needs information not frequently used by teachers: information about occupations, training institutions, colleges, apprenticeship programs, community occupational opportunities, placement, referral sources, social services agencies, and diagnostic and clinical instruments. |

The above contrasts indicate that both teaching and counseling are vital aspects of the educational process and are aimed at helping the student to a maximum growth so he may operate effectively in a social and democratic society.

## IS COUNSELING SYNONYMOUS WITH THERAPY?

In the past few years a point of view has developed which includes counseling and psychotherapy as one and the same process. For example,

Rogers, (49) by precept and example, equates counseling and psychotherapy. Conversely, various attempts have been made to distinguish some of the differences in terms of functions, type of personnel involved, locale of work, and tools and techniques used.

Mowrer (37) believes that counseling is the process of giving professional help to persons suffering from fully conscious conflicts which are accompanied by so-called normal anxiety. In this respect he is stating that counseling should be concerned with normal individuals and should not extend to those individuals who show dissociative trends and neurotic anxiety.

Pepinsky and Blos (43, 7) assert that counseling should deal with persons having relatively nonimbedded problems or with those individuals who have not as yet established a rigid, repetitive neurotic pattern. Other authorities have placed guidance, counseling, clinical psychology, and psychotherapy on a continuum with distinction being made in terms of degree rather than kind. Nevertheless, it is extremely difficult to determine where one starts and the other stops on the continuum.

For both the counselor and psychotherapist, the interview and case study are apparently common techniques. However, the variation between the two in frequency of use of other tools and techniques is considerable.

For the most part, counselors operate in educational institutions while therapists work in a medical setting. Nevertheless, this still does not preclude the possibility that a neurotic individual will not be encountered by the counselor. Gustad (28) declares that clinical psychology and counseling are not different disciplines, except in certain essentially peripheral emphases, and that psychotherapy is one of the techniques available to well-trained personnel in either area.

While there is apparent disagreement concerning the difference between counseling and psychotherapy, there is a trend in thinking that counseling is more concerned with the normal student in an educational environment. The counselor's training and background differs from that of the therapist in that he uses more techniques and tools than can be employed in the public schools. Failor (24) summarizes the characteristics of the counselor by pointing out the following distinguishing marks: (1) concentration on the normal, (2) breadth in training rather than depth, (3) more tools and techniques, (4) greater need for

coöperative relationships, (5) psychology not the sole basis, and (6) recognition is given to the socio-economic variable.

IS COUNSELING SYNONYMOUS WITH INTERVIEWING?

The application of the numerous tools employed by a counselor is encompassed in the interview. The issue then evolves whether interviewing is the counseling or whether other activities are included. Rogers and his followers tend to limit counseling to an interview whereby the aims of self-direction can be realized. Furthermore, this particular school of thought would limit counseling to one particular type of interviewing, a point which Robinson feels may lead the counselor to reject or fail to recognize certain roles which the client expects or needs him to take (47).

Bordin (9) suggests "that we define counseling as an interview relationship between two persons in which one person accepts the responsibility for defining the nature of the relationship and its process with the expectation that it will lead to increased happiness for the other person." This definition indicates that counseling is interviewing. Many authorities agree that counseling is carried on primarily by means of interviews, but would give it a broader connotation. For example, Williamson (59:110) says that both counselor and counselee participate in the following roles:

1. Definition of problem as presently understood with possible related causes.
2. Identification of associated ego involvement or self-attitudes.
3. Identification and acceptance of the integrated roles of counselor and client as a working team of learners.
4. Collection, refinement, and verification of relevant facts.
5. Interpretation (diagnosis-distinguishing) of the relevant facts and their implications.
6. Learning new ways of adjustment with the encouragement of the counselor.

The participation in these roles would not restrict counseling to an interview situation. It appears that while the principal technique in the actual counseling process is the interview, it would be unwise to limit the process to that technique. Effective counseling can be accomplished only on a basis of adequate information, the gathering of which assists the counselor and counselee to develop a better understanding of the

significant problems. For example, a student taking an interest test may gain insight into the various vocations and activities of life. Such insight is certainly a part of counseling, yet is not a part of the interviewing situation.

IS THERE SUCH A THING AS GROUP COUNSELING?

Most definitions of counseling either state or imply the aspect of the one-to-one or face-to-face relationship. In fact, Hahn and MacLean go as far as to say "to talk of 'group counseling' and to imply that it is similar in structure and outcome to one-to-one clinical counseling is as silly as talking about 'group courtship'" (30:11). Such a statement does not deny group counseling, but questions that group procedure would have the same outcome or structure as the face-to-face situation. Pepinsky (42) observes some relevant facts concerning mental health conditions in the United States and asks questions concerning the counselor's role in such a program. Furthermore, he asks pertinent questions about the role of the counselor in the welfare of a large percentage (estimated at 80 percent) of students who do not come to a centralized counseling center. He continues by suggesting that practical steps in meeting these problems should be taken by adoping group situations, observing, making inferences, testing hypothesis, and refraining from premature commitment and bias about group procedures until the evidence is assembled.

The authors have emphasized group procedures in Part IV of this book where they discuss techniques and adhere to the necessity of such an approach. In the current discussion of counseling theory, much emphasis is placed on the learning process in the counseling situation. In the future it may be possible to extend the educational psychology of learning to counseling groups rather than to individuals alone. If we agree with most authorities and accept the premise that there are different levels of individual counseling, then it should follow that there are aspects of group counseling at different levels. For the teacher-counselor level, as an example, certain functions require group procedures and could be designated as group counseling. Such functions probably would not have the same structure or outcomes as individual counseling, but represent degrees of counseling when considered within the framework of the total counseling program.

Conversely, when one is concerned with the highest level of counsel-

ing (general clinical counseling), the structure of the situation dictates a one-to-one relationship. The viewpoint expressed here is in keeping with our philosophy of emphasizing various levels of counseling, each in its respective sphere contributing to the total development of the student.

## DEFINITION OF COUNSELING

Although the foregoing discussion may seem rather lengthy, it is important for the reader to gain an understanding of the issues. Many different definitions of counseling have been given, but we should like to present our own as derived from the preceding discussion. Because our definition pertains to general clinical counseling, it does not include reference to group procedures or group counseling. *Counseling is a mutual learning process involving two individuals in an educational environment, one who is seeking help from a professionally trained person, and the other, who by reason of his breadth of training and background, utilizes many adjustment techniques and methods in assisting the individual to orient and direct himself toward a goal leading to maximum growth and development in a social and democratic society.*

### COMMON ELEMENTS IN COUNSELING THEORY

#### *Emphasis on Differences Leads to Confusion*

Although the foregoing discussion has emphasized different points of view toward a definition of counseling, there are still areas of general agreement. Unfortunately, the published discussions on guidance continue to emphasize those differences which confuse the beginning counselor. Although there is no question that basic differences exist between different schools of thought, it is appropriate to reserve a discussion of these for subsequent paragraphs and consider for the moment the points of agreement.

#### *Examples of Agreement*

Arbuckle (4:122) limits the areas of agreement to three points: (1) Counseling is a process involving two people. (It appears that the writer is talking about general clinical counseling.) (2) The basic objective of counseling is to assist the individual to solve his problems independently. (3) Counseling is a professional task for professionally-

trained people. These three areas of agreement are valid, but they might well be expanded to include a more detailed discussion of the counseling processes and techniques.

Another writer, Cottle (15) has extended the number of elements to five. His excellent analysis of each common element is worthy of our consideration. The first common element among all counseling theories is the necessity for establishing a relationship of mutual respect between the two participants. In most cases this is called rapport, which can be established only on the basis of trust and confidence. Unless the counselor presents an attitude of friendliness and coöperativeness, the initial counseling relationship may be strained and forced. An atmosphere of permissiveness, where frankness and honesty can be expressed without fear of reprisal or criticism, is also essential to establishing mutual respect and trust.

Communication between counselor and client proceeds by diverse approaches regardless of the counseling techniques employed. Where the interview is the primary avenue by which the individual gains self-insight, major importance should be ascribed to developing effective methods for transmitting verbal and implied material. The counselor's command of language, his ability to use a vocabulary familiar to the client, and his use of a variety of approaches to establish the meaning of the conversation are all helpful techniques in increasing the effectiveness of communication. The counselor is cognizant that meaning is communicated in ways other than verbal expression. Tone of voice, facial expression, gesture, and posture may all communicate meaning as effectively as spoken language. The skilled counselor watches for any cue from his client which may indicate favorable or unfavorable response to techniques. Interviewing is a two-way process; thus while the counselor is concerned with the client understanding his communication, he must also be concerned with what the client is saying.

A third common denominator to counseling theories concerns itself with the breadth and depth of knowledge which the counselor brings to his work. Professionalism is attained only when the counselor has a genuine liking for people and is interested in helping them; when he has had a variety of formal educational and vocational courses; and finally, when he has acquired a background of successful practical experience. Through training and experience he learns of the psychological aspects of people and becomes alert to their motivation, goals, and adjustment. His training has introduced him to the successful use

of numerous techniques and tools that can be used to assist people make desirable decisions. Without sufficient background and training the counselor is limited in his effectiveness to initiate and complete a successful counseling function.

The change in feelings as expressed by the counselee as he progresses in counseling is a fourth common element. Feelings, initially expressed, are concerned with negative impulses, bewilderment, or confusion, but as progress is made they will change to a more positive approach or a better orientation toward the problem. Additional progress results in greater insight into the causes of his behavior and eventually the client will determine a plan of action based upon these understandings. Whether the counseling situation be vocational or therapeutic, such changes of feelings are common to all successful counseling procedure.

Every successful counseling interview must be structured; this is the fifth common element in counseling. On the one hand, the structure may occur when the counselor tells the counselee to complete questionnaires, take a test, and read occupational material. On the other hand, structuring may be limited to the role of the counselor and counselee in the interview. Regardless of the extent of the structuring, effective counseling is more likely to occur if the client and the counselor understand their respective roles in the process.

To these five common elements we should like to add a sixth by saying that all counseling theories recognize the feasibility and necessity of referrals. All counselors have limitations, thus referrals to other personnel or agencies are sometimes necessary, either early in counseling or at the end of the counseling situation.

## Summary of Common Elements

As a progressive procedure toward developing a common core of counseling theory, the following summary is presented:

1. Counseling is a process involving only two people.
2. The aim of counseling is to help the counselee solve his own problems.
3. The establishment of a relationship of mutual respect and trust is necessary for effective counseling.
4. Communication between counselor and client is accomplished in many different ways.
5. Counseling is performed by a professionally-trained person who has a breadth and depth of knowledge.

6. There is a progressive change of the client's feelings in effective counseling.
7. The counseling situation must be structured.
8. Referral is a common technique in counseling.

## Comparison of Directive and Non-Directive Points of View

Guidance literature is replete with discussions expounding the various schools of thought in counseling. The bulk of defense and criticism has been focused on the "directive" versus "non-directive" theories. However, most guidance workers believe that the issues have now been resolved by establishing a continuum of counseling, with the non-directive point of view on one end and the directive on the other. Williamson (60) summarizes this viewpoint when he asks, "Is the truth about the nature of counseling encompassed in a series of opposites, or two-order values, with no tenable ground between them? e.g., non-directive versus directive, client-centered versus counselor-centered, silence versus advice, all or none, etc., or is it possible that we are dealing with continuous situations which may be appropriate or inappropriate, relevant or irrelevant, for different times, conditions, and persons?"

Although the above statement apparently reflects the general trend in theoretical discussion, there are specific differences not yet resolved. The beginning guidance worker should be familiar with these differences and judge the merits of each for himself. It appears to the writers that the differences between the "directive and non-directive" schools of thought may be organized around these points: (1) basic assumptions, and (2) role of the counselor in the counseling process.[2] It would appear differences in emphasis might encourage different training programs for prospective counselors; regardless, both points of view expound high proficiency in professional preparation.

### Differences in Basic Assumptions [3]

The theory of the non-directive school is based on the assumption that within every individual there are growth forces which, if released from all restrictions, will permit him to adjust to his environment. Con-

[2] Leading exponents of the two views are E. G. Williamson (directive) and Carl Rogers (non-directive).
[3] The article, "Good Counseling—What Is It?" by Dugald S. Arbuckle, *Educational Administration and Supervision* (May, 1948), 34:304–309, provides the outline for this section.

versely, Williamson believes that no individual can overcome his own bias in viewing himself, and, accordingly, the counselor can see a client more objectively than the client can see himself. The student must be helped to make intelligent choices in terms of the future. Rogers would say that the student has this means within himself, and he alone knows when and how to use it.

A second difference is in the amount of emphasis on the emotional elements in the counseling process. Non-directive psychotherapy allocates more significance to the emotional rather than the intellectual aspects of personality. In other words, failure to adjust to the environment is due to some emotional disturbance which, if removed by proper application of non-directive counseling, will permit the client to make his own decisions. Williamson, however, theorizes that nine-tenths of counseling may be assisting the client to assume a problem-solving attitude or in transferring from an emotional to an intellectual frame of reference. Information, guidance, and planning, when applied by an individual with continued success will provoke a change in attitude that makes it possible for him to find happiness in his environment. Thorne (54) believes that the normal person with an adjustment problem "still retains an intact intellect, a relatively stable emotional life . . . and he is capable of effective self-regulations once he learns the causes of his difficulties and more suitable patterns of behavior with which to avoid maladjustment in the future."

Another element within the non-directive theory embodies the right of the client to choose his goals. The non-directivist proposes that no one knows enough to tell others what to do, and thus everyone must learn to make his own decisions and design his own course of activities. Conversely, the directivist proposes that because of his thorough training and access to information, the counselor is in a position to tell the counselee what is best for him.

We should like to summarize the basic assumptions of the directive and non-directive theories as follows:

### NON-DIRECTIVE (53)

1. The client has the right to select his own life goals even though these may be at variance with the goals that the counselor might choose for him.
2. The client will, if given the opportunity, choose for himself the goal most likely to produce the truest happiness.

3. In a reasonably short time and by means of the counseling situation, the client should be brought to a position where he is able to operate independently.

4. The major cause of failure to adjust to the environment is an emotional disturbance or block [added by authors].

### DIRECTIVE

1. The counselor has superior training, experience, and information and is competent to suggest or advise how a problem is to be solved.

2. The maladjustment of an individual does not entirely remove the intellectual ability of the client; thus, counseling is primarily an intellectual process.

3. The client is not always capable of solving his problems because of such factors as bias and lack of information.

4. The objectives of counseling are achieved primarily through a problem-solving situation.

### *Role of the Counselor*

An excellent method for demonstrating the possible role of a counselor is to discuss the steps in the counseling process according to both directive and non-directive theory. Williamson and Darley (64) first classified the steps for the counselor as follows: (1) analysis, the collection of pertinent data by a variety of tools and techniques; (2) synthesis, the mechanical and graphic organization of the data; (3) diagnosis; (4) prognosis; (5) counseling; and (6) follow-up or evaluation. These steps provide the procedures for analyzing the role of the counselor in the directive counseling situation.

In analysis and synthesis the counselor collects a great variety of information about the client and then organizes and summarizes it on a record form. All of the various analytical tools, such as records, interviews, autobiographies, anecdotes, and tests are used to sample student behavior in all important areas of development. The final recording of the data should reveal the student's assets, liabilities, adjustments, and maladjustments. Non-directivists criticize this procedure for two reasons: (1) The collection of information tends to lead to intellectual discussion and thus prevents the expression of emotionalized attitudes, and (2) it tends to focus undue attention upon the individual's past rather than upon his immediate problem. Much effective counseling can be accomplished without references to records.

Diagnosis and prognosis pertain to the counselor's drawing a con-

clusion about the causes of the disturbance and making a prediction of the future development of the student's problem. In other words, the counselor records what he feels is the problem along with its possible causes and states whether he thinks the client will readjust. The possible usefulness of these steps has elicited much argument between the two schools of thought. The non-directivist criticizes the steps because of the implication that a prescribed formula will automatically solve the client's problems. Furthermore, many problems are solved according to the counselor's rather than the client's terms.

In terms of the directive theory, the next step is counseling or treatment. In this step the counselor marshals all information and evidence, points out the problem to the student, and suggests a plan of action based on the available information. More specifically, the directive counselor employs and uses any other techniques to induce adjustment and readjustment.

Williamson (62) makes specific suggestions for assisting the counselor to perform the counseling functions well: (1) Establishing rapport: The counselor should express friendliness, cordiality, and personal understanding. He may direct conversation to familiar grounds such as hobbies, sports, or current events; his attitude is of a happy medium between domination and aloofness. He may begin the counseling interview by questioning. (2) Cultivating understanding: The counselor interprets the tests by showing the student his weakness and strength. This is followed by an analysis of other sources of information. (3) Advising or planning a program of action: Evidence for and against student's claimed educational or vocational choice is expressed orally by the counselor. Favorable and unfavorable phases of diagnosis may be listed and this followed by a recommended shift in goals or social habits. A plan of action is prescribed coöperatively with the client; if the plan is rejected later, the counselor may give his impression of the student's psychological peculiarities and suggest methods for improvement. (4) Carrying out the plan: The counselor may assist the student to realize the plan by providing such services as occupational and educational information, or remedial reading. (5) Referral to other personnel workers: It is not unusual for a counselor to refer the student to a speech correctionist, psychologist, or other specialist. In fact, this may be the most effective procedure for counseling.

The various counseling functions which the directive counselor performs are criticized by the non-directive group because attention is

focused upon the immediate problem rather than the client. Questions, advice and reassurance may remove symptoms, but the basic causes remain.

The final step used by the directivist in the counseling procedure is "the follow-up," wherein the counselor assists the student with any new or recurring problems which may arise after first contacts are finished. The non-directivists criticize this procedure as indicative of poor or ineffective counseling. To them counseling is used only as a "temporary crutch"; if the client has gained the proper insight, he will be able to make his own decisions, choose his own goals, and take positive steps without further counseling.

Rogers (49) has outlined the counseling process for the non-directive group. He would limit the entire counseling process to but one step described by the directivist; namely, the counseling step. No consideration is given to the other steps, i.e., analysis, synthesis, diagnosis, prognosis, and follow-up.

The non-directive counselor assumes that any person who comes for help has done so on his own initiative. The first procedure in non-directive counseling, therefore, is to define the "helping situation." The first element of this definition is to clarify the role of the counselor and the procedure of counseling. The counselor is not an authority who knows the answers to personality problems but he is willing to provide a counseling situation where the answers may be found. The counselee understands that the counseling hour is his to use as he chooses, and that he may say anything he wishes to a willing listener. The directivist criticizes this approach, saying that a person who comes to a counselor needs something more positive than a declaration that the answers to his problems are not known and that he may use his prerogative to continue or discontinue the contacts.

Free expression of feeling (permissiveness) is an essential part of the procedure in non-directive counseling. All feelings are accepted and reflected by the counselor who assumes a friendly and receptive attitude, never blocking hostile or ambivalent statements. Critics of this philosophy claim that individuals often want and need information; there is no necessity to go through a long process of decisions and reflections.

After free expression has been established, the counselor's role is to recognize and clarify negative and positive feelings expressed by the client. Negative feelings usually appear first; but after a period of acceptance, reflection, and clarification, the positive feelings follow. The

counselor reflects and clarifies negative and positive feelings alike without praise or moral judgment. The directive group once again offers criticism by saying the client is left to middle his own way through his problems and may never express those feelings which resolve the problem itself.

As insight begins to develop the counselor may clarify choices made by the client, a procedure which provides a basis for future progress. The counselor continues to accept, reflect, and clarify new feelings and choices leading to future plans. Once again, the directivists continue with the criticism that people who are in need of counseling do not know enough to make their own decisions. With all our modern tests, for example, there is still much risk involved in correct vocational choice.

Still another significant element in the non-directive counseling process is the self-directed action initiated by the client. When this occurs positive progressive steps may have already been taken outside the counseling interview. The counselor does not urge continuance of self-initiated action but permits the client to expand his endeavors when and where he feels free to do so. Directive counselors believe that this part of the process is much too slow; many people are unable to wait so long to develop insight.

Finally, the termination of the counseling relationship marks an important period. Either the counselor or the client may suggest the closing of the counseling relationship after sufficient positive action has been manifested. Critics are concerned with the lack of "follow-up" which may provide additional help as well as assistance in determining the success of the counseling.

### Integrative Summary

This detailed discussion of two points of view concerning the role of the counselor in the counseling situation has been necessary to provide the guidance worker with a basic foundation of counseling theory. Most of the current authorities in counseling apparently agree that there are various types of counseling techniques. Non-directive techniques may be more effective in certain situations and with certain people; while directive techniques may be more effective in other situations and with other people. Numerous writers have proposed an eclectic viewpoint whereby the best in each theory is adopted by the counselor and client. For example, Thorne (55) describes the process of the interview as fol-

lows: (1) the client expresses and clarifies feelings, (2) client and counselor discuss objectively unrealistic or erroneous attitudes, (3) the client discusses his proposed solution and the counselor presents alternatives, (4) the counselor assigns definite tasks, (5) discussion follows on how to face problems realistically.

Bordin (*10*) suggests using non-directive or directive techniques according to the type of problem encountered. For example, he proposes that a counselor may use directive methods where the problem seems to be primarily a lack of information, and non-directive methods in problems involving self-conflict. He proceeds to establish a set of five diagnostic constructs and suggests different counseling methods for helping individuals in each category.

There are many other writers such as Froehlich, Robinson, Woolf and Woolf, and Hahn and MacLean who feel that it is not an "either-or" process but one which adapts the techniques to the individual being counseled. Apparently we can expect much future progress in the classification of various types of situations and problems and in the identification of specific techniques for use in counseling. Nevertheless, if more emphasis were placed on the identity of the common body of knowledge in counseling theory and process, counselor-training programs could be improved.

## The Evaluation of Counseling

Since 1942 when Rogers first published his book on non-directive counseling there has been an increasing interest in the determination of which methods produce the best counseling results. Incidental evaluation has always been in process. In this book, however, we are not particularly interested in attempts to ascertain which counseling method produces the most effective results. Rather, we shall attend to some of the difficulties encountered in evaluating counseling, types of criteria that have been used for evaluation, and a brief review of some evaluative studies. It is hoped that this approach will provide the reader with sufficient background and inspiration to attempt an evaluation of his own counseling. As Froehlich (*25*) states "Evaluation is a prerequisite to progress."

### EVALUATION DIFFICULTIES

A number of studies have described the methods of evaluation, but for purposes of illustration we shall refer here to only two of them.

Dressel, (*19*) from a survey of evaluation studies, found the following approaches being used: (1) studies of the counseling process itself, (2) studies of the outcomes of counseling, (3) studies based on data accruing from tests and rating procedures where the outcomes are implicit in the techniques rather than explicit. Evaluation studies range from carefully controlled and statistically treated designs to those completely incidental and fortuitous. As Dressel observes, some of the problems in evaluation of counseling include the establishment of adequate criteria concerning outcomes or process of counseling, the setting up of a planned experimental design, and finding finances for conducting the research.

Williamson and Bordin (*63*) after a discussion of the assumptions, criteria, method of measuring outcomes, and experimental designs conclude: (1) all available methods of evaluation have weaknesses; (2) composite criteria which avoid arithmetic combination of subcriteria are at present least open to question, even though these, too, are crude measures; (3) it is extremely difficult to secure sufficient data without doing violence to the concept and practice of counseling; (4) the proper time interval to use for evaluation is extremely important; (5) the methods used for validation of diagnostic and prognostic tools (e.g., tests) may not be applicable because of the uniqueness of each counseling situation; and (6) the inability to control conditions for an adequate test of counseling recommendations is an impediment to exact evaluation. These authorities clearly define the problem of evaluation as "What counseling techniques (and conditions) will produce what type of results with what type of students?"

A summary of criticisms of evaluation studies can be made under the following categories (*17*): (1) failure to state counseling objectives clearly and in terms of *observable student characteristics and behavior*, (2) failure to relate the objectives of counseling in the educational objectives of the institution, (3) acceptance of readily available criteria without validation against primary objectives, (4) the tendency to regard certain outcomes as generally desirable, with consequent disregard of individual differences, (5) failure to distinguish between means and ends, and (6) failure to develop a satisfactory experimental design.

The foregoing summarizations clearly demonstrate that evaluation of counseling is not an easy or short-time process. A well-defined and meaningful study may take as many hours in the initial planning stage

as in the activating stage. The counselor should keep the following points in mind when attempting to evaluate his counseling:

1. Determine the criteria for evaluation. The criteria should be in terms of counseling objectives that are related to the purpose of the school. It is wise to state them in terms of specific student behavior and characteristics.

2. Set up an experimental plan for measuring the criteria. The following factors should be considered:
   a. The types of student being counseled.
   b. The techniques used in counseling.
   c. The conditions in the counseling situation, home, school, or student's psychological make-up that would affect his achieving the criteria.
   d. The control of other factors that might affect criteria.
   e. Consider all possible methods for measuring criteria.

Through any well-developed research study much growth and progress will be observed, but an evaluation based upon a careless procedure is little better than none at all. We should like now to consider briefly some of the methods that have been used in evaluating counseling.

## METHODS FOR EVALUATION OF COUNSELING

The problem of method includes an ascertaining of a procedure to follow and a selection of the appropriate criteria. Froehlich (*25*) suggests the following categories into which evaluative methods might be placed:

1. External criteria: the do you know this method
2. Follow-up: the what happened then method
3. Client opinion: the what do you think method
4. Expert opinion: the "information please" method
5. Specific techniques: the little by little method
6. Within-group changes: the before and after method
7. Between group changes: the what's the difference method

Hahn and MacLean (*30:345–363*) used these criteria in a similar way but have enlarged and modified them to some extent. The methods they use are: (1) generalized program evaluations, (2) evaluation of specific counseling tools and techniques, (3) evaluation by counselee, (4) evaluation by problem type, (5) evaluation by faculty, (6) evaluation by measurement of group changes, (7) evaluation through long range and follow-up studies, and (8) counselor self-evaluation.

Dressel (18) and Arbuckle (4:14) would reduce the number of methods to three. Dressel would classify all evaluation studies into three major types: (1) appraisal of group development, (2) appraisal of individual development, and (3) appraisal by external opinion. Arbuckle's three classifications are: (1) self-evaluation, (2) group evaluation, and (3) the actions of the individual.

The foregoing reviews indicate that there is considerable agreement concerning the methods of evaluation. The methods may be stated specifically or categorized into broad areas. Before selecting a method for evaluation, the criteria, which may determine the method to be selected, should be established. The many different criteria which have been used to evaluate counseling should be related to the objectives of counseling.

Dressel (17:74–76) suggests several desirable outcomes of counseling: (1) The person counseled should improve his problem-solving process. (2) There should be certain changes in the interest pattern of the individual counseled. (3) There should be a change in the attitudes of the client. (4) There should be a kind of "coincidence" of various views of the individual, or better, an agreement of the individual's concept with reality.

While the above outcomes are useful in helping the evaluator to relate objectives of evaluation to the purposes of the school, they are still too general to plan an experimental design. Specific criteria have to be established first for measuring each outcome. Williamson and Bordin (63) analyzed the following as criteria: students' feelings of improvement of adjustments; independent judgments of adjustments subsequent to counseling; improvement in college grades following counseling; and satisfying adjustments to jobs following counseling.

Williamson (59:111–126) in a review of experimental studies to evaluate counseling, has used the following criteria for classification: job adjustment, adjustment in college, college grades, social adjustment, student's opinion, continuance in training, measured changes in personality, and changes in self-attitudes. When these criteria are related to the outcomes of counseling, they become very helpful in establishing an experimental design for evaluation purposes.

As a conclusion to the foregoing suggestions, the usual steps of the evaluation procedure may be presented—with some modification:

1. Choose the objective: For example, the person should improve in his problem solving process.
2. Define objective in terms of student characteristics or behavior: For

example, a hypothesis might be set up stating "counseling should aid in helping a student to select more appropriate goals which coincide with his interests, aptitudes, and abilities."

3. Determine criteria for selecting appropriate goals: The choice may be appropriate if the student is successful in completing the educational requirements necessary for the goal. The question then involved is, "Do students who receive counseling more often select appropriate educational goals than do students who do not receive this help?"

4. Design experimental plan to measure question: A control group might be used with such factors as intelligence, sex, age, and socio-economic levels being held constant.

5. Carefully analyze data before drawing conclusions: All factors that might influence the results should be given consideration.

6. Check and reanalyze results for verification.

## EVALUATION STUDIES

For those counselors who wish to initiate an evaluation program the following examples should prove helpful. They were selected because of the multiplicity of the criteria used to measure the effectiveness of counseling. After reading the brief reviews of these studies, the reader will agree that not only can many different criteria be used in evaluation, but that different types of counseling techniques can also achieve success.

Toven (56) made a study of 376 students admitted to college with 188 of them being systematically counseled throughout the four-year period by faculty advisers. The other 188 students as the control group remained uncounseled. The students in the two groups were matched person to person on intelligence, sex, age, college class, race, religion, and curriculum chosen. The two groups were then compared at the close of a 4-year period in the following factors: (1) graduation from college, (2) persistence in college, (3) scholastic action by the faculty, (4) cumulative college grade averages, (5) college grades, A to F, and (6) number of points completed. The results led to the conclusion that the counseled group made better records in all the factors considered, with the exception of the cumulative grade point average of the graduates, in which case the two groups were identical.

Using job adjustment as a criterion, Paterson (40) reported a 15-year follow-up of the occupational adjustment of counseled adults. Such factors were considered as: number of jobs held following coun-

seling, length of time employed on each job, and reports from employers on efficiency. Even after this long period of time, the occupational adjustment of those who followed the counselor's advice was significantly better than that of those who ignored it.

With participation in social and extracurricular activities as a criterion of social adjustment, Aldrich (*1*) and Hill (*33*) analyzed the effects of counseling. Both investigators found some indications of a slight increase in activity participation following counseling, although the results were not statistically significant.

Where student opinion of counseling has been used as the criterion, Paterson and Clark (*41*) reported a questionnaire study in which a majority of the students expressed a belief that the counseling conferences were quite helpful and of great value. Only 10 percent found the conference of little or no value.

Suggestions for the continuation of training have been used as a criterion of counseling effectiveness in numerous studies. Brown (*11*) reported a follow-up study of 503 veterans two years after initial advisement. He found 41 percent were still in the advised training program and an additional 7 percent had completed their recommended training program.

Muench (*38*) reported the use of the Rorschach, the Kent-Rosanoff Free Association Test, and the Bell Adjustment Inventory in identifying personality changes in twelve individuals who were counseled by the non-directive method. He found that 11, 9, and 7 of the cases showed improvement on the respective personality measures.

Non-directive therapists have used the identified changes in the client talk as a criterion of the effectiveness of the counseling. However, Carnes and Robinson (*13*) reported an experiment on the relationship between the amount of talking by a client in an interview and the effectiveness of the counseling. They felt the non-directive counselors assumed verbalization results in insight. They conclude that the casual relationship between amount of client talk and desirable interview outcome is not clear. Therefore, it is not possible to use the amount of client talk as a criterion of counseling effectiveness.[4]

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[4] A very thorough discussion concerning an evaluation study on non-directive psychotherapy is Snyder, William U., "An Investigation of the Nature of Non-Directive Psychotherapy," *Journal of General Psychology* (1945), *33*:193–224. The reader is referred to it as a review of a possible evaluating procedure using changes in self-attitudes as a criterion.

## SUMMARY

With some justification, counseling is frequently referred to as the "heart" of the guidance program. This process is focused upon the effective use of all information gathered about the individual whereby self-insight and self-analysis can precede decisions, choices, and action. Despite the importance of counseling many different opinions and concepts exist concerning the process.

In arriving at a definition of counseling, answers to the following questions were sought: (1) Is counseling the same as good teaching? (2) Is counseling synonymous with therapy? (3) Is counseling synonymous with interviewing? (4) Does group counseling exist? After a discussion of the controversial issues, the following definition was presented. "Counseling is a mutual learning process involving two individuals in an educational environment, one who is seeking help from a professionally trained person, and the other, who, by reason of his breadth of training and background, utilizes many adjustment techniques and methods in assisting the individual to orient and direct himself toward a goal leading to maximum growth and development in a social and democratic society."

There is no question that a number of different points of view exist concerning the counseling process, and much of the published discussion in guidance continues to emphasize these differences. However, it seems that a more fruitful approach would be in developing a common core of counseling theory. It appears that common points of agreement are: (1) counseling is a process involving only two people, (2) the aim of counseling is to help the counselee solve his own problems, (3) effective rapport is necessary for good counseling, (4) communication between counselor and client is accomplished in many different ways, (5) counseling is performed by a professionally-trained person, (6) there is a progressive change of the client's feelings in effective counseling, (7) the counseling situation must be structural, and (8) referral is a common technique in counseling.

Differences of opinions between the directive and non-directive philosophy were presented in relationship to the basic assumptions, and the role of the counselor in the counseling process. Many writers have proposed an eclectic viewpoint whereby the best in each theory is adopted by the counselor and client. Apparently, we can expect much further progress in the classification of various types of situations and

problems and in the identifying of specific techniques for use in counsel-
ing.

Evaluating the effectiveness of the counseling process is an extremely
difficult task. A well-defined and meaningful study may take as many
hours in the initial planning stage as in the activating stage. An appro-
priate criteria for evaluation and an experimental plan for measuring
the criteria are essential to a sound evaluation study. The usual steps
in such a procedure may be as follows: (1) choose the objective, (2)
define the objective in terms of the student characteristics or behavior,
(3) determine criteria for measuring student behavior, (4) design
experimental plan to measure question, (5) carefully analyze data be-
fore drawing conclusions, and (6) check and re-analyze results for
verification. For the beginning counselor many illustrative studies are
found in the literature which will be suggestive of evaluating methods.

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# CHAPTER 13

## *The Interview*

*The Importance of the Interview*

SPEECH is the primary means by which man develops intimate relationships and adjustments with his fellows. Of the countless situations in which an individual communicates orally, much of the conversation is aimless, unless it be sheer pleasure of talking. In the case of the interview, however, we have a form of communication with a definite purpose. As a matter of fact, interviews have been classified by types according to the purpose. For example, Erickson's (*13:4–5*) classification appears as follows: (1) The employment interview whose purpose is to determine the applicant's fitness for a job. The content will be largely determined by the interviewer who knows the requirements of the job and the necessary qualifications for success. (2) The informational interview whose purpose is to secure information, or the verification of information. The primary objective, i.e., to obtain information, may pertain to either the counselor or counselee. (3) The disciplinary or administrative interview whose purpose is to cause a desirable change of behavior. For example, because of an interpretation of rules and regulations, a new action may ensue. (4) The counseling interview whose purpose is to assist the individual in developing self-responsibility and self-initiative.

Although the purpose of each interview will differ, many common techniques will be found. The emphasis in this chapter will be on techniques used in the "counseling interview." The interview is the primary

tool in counseling, but unfortunately, at its best, it has many limitations

tool in counseling, but unfortunately, at its best, it has many limitations of validity and reliability. It is imperative, therefore, that every guidance worker become as skilled as possible in its use.

## The Counseling Interview Defined

The definition of a counseling interview varies from one authority to another; nevertheless, there is common agreement that it is a dynamic face-to-face situation involving but two people. The responsibilities and role of each member presents a controversial issue, but for immediate purposes the authors would like to define interviewing as a face-to-face process involving two individuals, one of whom is assisting the other in gaining insight for the purpose of solving his own problems and accepting his responsibilities. The purpose, conditions, and techniques of successful interviewing shall constitute the subject matter of this chapter.

## Purposes of the Interview

The purposes of the interview are manifold, and will vary from situation to situation; nevertheless, these purposes primarily determine the ultimate structure, methods, and techniques employed. The primary objectives of any interview are: (1) the establishment of mutual respect or rapport, (2) the gaining or giving of information, (3) guidance in solving a problem or planning a course of action, and (4) the releasing of tensions and changing emotional feelings. Strang (35) suggests two additional purposes, namely, the use of the interview in the selection of teachers and as an instrument of research.

### ESTABLISHMENT OF RAPPORT

It is imperative that in getting acquainted with each other, the interviewer and interviewee must have mutual confidence and trust in each other. The initial interview will be concerned with the development of such a relationship, and subsequent contacts will be aimed at the maintenance of rapport. The success or failure of an interview or series of interviews will depend primarily upon this basis of respect and confidence.

### GAINING OR GIVING INFORMATION

In each interview period the wise counselor is constantly collecting information to augment the reservoir of material already known about

the interviewee. If he is keen in his observation, much information can be obtained by non-verbal cues such as gestures, facial expressions, voice inflections, grammatical expressions, and so on. Frequently, these are more meaningful than the actually expressed words. Conjointly, with collecting new information the counselor uses the interview to check the accuracy of information already known. This check may detect glaring inadequacies of data; thus, the interview serves as a validating, verifying, or discarding medium.

When information is desired and asked for, the counselor is obligated to present it if he can possibly do so. The more the interviewer knows about the interviewee, and the more information he has about the educational and vocational world, the more effective he can be in presenting valid and pertinent material to the individual. The interviewer, however, under any circumstance should never force information on the interviewee; he should constantly keep in mind effective rules of learning and teaching.

## GUIDANCE IN SOLVING PROBLEMS OR PLANNING ACTION

When an individual appears for an interview, he is usually seeking help to solve a problem. Problems may be related to the development or changing of an educational plan, the development of interests in work and school, or the development of a completely new outlook on life. By presenting the information collected to date, or by analyzing strengths and weaknesses by means of it, the interviewer may assist the individual to perceive himself in accurate terms. Presenting and weighing possible alternatives may assist the interviewee not only to see all aspects of the problem, but may also give him sufficient confidence to solve his problem independently. That the interviewee may be given an opportunity to solve his own problem, it is necessary, frequently, to develop an atmosphere of permissiveness, whereby he can express himself unrestrained by negative information or by fear of judgment or reprisal. If the desired outcome requires an acceptance of responsibilities by the interviewee, then it is essential that he be an active, participating member in the interviewing situation.

Follow-up interviews are held frequently for the purpose of checking the interviewee's progress according to his educational and vocational plans. These contacts may encourage or reassure the individual in his progress and provide an incentive for future constructive planning.

## RELEASING OF TENSION AND CHANGING OF FEELINGS

The primary purpose of an interview may well be cathartic, that is, permitting the individual to express his annoyance, or providing an outlet for his irritations. Such an interview provides for a release of tension, thus serving a useful purpose. Real improvement, however, requires more than a release of tension; additional insight into behavior must occur. The establishment of an amoral situation, whereby the interviewer accepts the statements of the interviewee at face value yet clarifies such statements, is a primary prerequisite to assisting the individual to release tension and change attitudes.

### Conditions Necessary for Good Interviewing

The most important factor influencing the effectiveness of the interview is the relationship or rapport established between the interviewer and interviewee; nevertheless, there are many essential factors which can directly or indirectly affect that relationship. The most significant of these factors are found in the preparation or precautions made by the interviewer before the interview. These factors can be grouped under the following areas: (1) physical setting of the interview, (2) records of interview, (3) "confidentialness" of information, and (4) background knowledge of the interviewer (16:55-59).

## PHYSICAL SETTING

The interview should be conducted in a private room, free from noise, distractions, and interruptions. If possible, it should be in a surrounding familiar to the interviewee. Nothing can destroy good relationships of an interview sooner than an interruption, e.g., a student or another teacher breaking into the room to ask a question. The location should be separated from administrative or business offices containing noisy typewriters or business machines. In brief, provision should be made for an atmosphere conducive to comfort and relaxation where normal conversation can proceed.

The interviewing room should contain a nominal amount of furniture such as desk, chairs, pictures, and so on. Even the arrangements of furniture can provide an atmosphere of congeniality. When the interviewer talks across a desk or to an individual several paces away from the desk, there is a suggestion of authority and separation. An alert interviewer watches for cues of reactions to the physical surroundings

so adjustments can be made to improve any subsequent sessions. No hard and fast rules are made to govern the use of physical facilities to create a desirable atmosphere; each interviewer uses his own judgment according to the particular individual and situation.

## RECORDS OF THE INTERVIEW

There has been much thought and discussion given to the problem of taking notes during or after the interview. It appears essential that the material covered in the interview should be written down for subsequent reference and analysis. No individual is capable of remembering all the items discussed in an interview and with time a great deal of forgetting takes place. It is necessary to have a written report of the important points covered in previous interviews for subsequent contacts with the individual. In addition, the evaluation of the effectiveness of the interviews without written notes is almost impossible.

If the interviewer takes notes during the interview it may have two effects. First, the interviewee may be cautious of what he says because he has no desire for his intimate problems to be written on paper. These feelings of apprehension may tend to destroy a free expression. Second, the interviewee may feel that the interviewer is of potential assistance, or he wouldn't be writing down the information. In other words, he might feel that he is getting his money's worth.

Tape recorders, a device by which a verbatim report of the whole interview can be recorded, have proved to be very beneficial for the analysis and evaluation of actual interview data. However, because it is very expensive, most guidance workers will not have the recorder. Some counselors feel, too, that it may cause the interviewee to be more cautious in expressing himself and thus decrease the effectiveness of the interview relationship.

While there can be no rigid rules concerning note-taking, the following suggestions appear to be the most valuable:

1. The notes taken during the interview should be limited to specific requests of information by the interviewee or to a mutual plan of action arrived at during the interview.
2. If the interview is properly structured, note-taking is unnecessary to make the interviewee feel that he is getting his money's worth.
3. The interviewer should make notes of the important items immediately after the close of the interview.

4. The notes should include information pertaining to the interviewee's reactions, as well as content of information.

5. The interview notes should be filed in the student's folder to be finally assimilated into his cumulative record.

### KEEPING MATERIAL CONFIDENTIAL

The assurance that the information divulged will be kept confidential is one of the important aspects of developing a mutual respect between the two participants in an interview. The interviewer has a professional and ethical obligation to keep such information to himself and to see that a recording of materials is kept in his files. Nothing will destroy rapport sooner than for a student to hear confidentially divulged information from a teacher who should not have had access to it. The interviewer should never release any information about an individual unless permission is given to him by that individual.

### NECESSARY BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Unless the interviewer has abundant information about the interviewee, the school and its purposes, and good techniques of interviewing, an interview cannot be successful. The necessary background of information for the interviewer includes: (1) A knowledge of the purposes and objectives of the school. Without this knowledge the counseling program cannot contribute to the achievement of educational objectives. (2) A knowledge of available referral sources. These sources are prepared to assist in educational, vocational, financial, emotional, and health problems and may be found in the community as well as within the school. (3) A knowledge of the interviewee. Information gathered by the various techniques described in Part II of this book should be organized, assembled, and filed.

## Techniques of Interviewing

Too little attention has been directed toward finding specific techniques that can be used successfully by the interviewer. For example, the establishment of rapport has been included often as an essential part of the interview, but little has been written about how to establish rapport. The discussion in the following paragraphs will, therefore, be directed toward some practical techniques. These techniques might be grouped according to the types of interview, but since we are primarily

interested in the counseling interview and since many of the techniques are common to all types of interviews, we shall use the following grouping: (1) techniques of preplanning, (2) techniques of establishing rapport, (3) techniques related to the core of the interview, and (4) techniques of closing the interviews.

## TECHNIQUES OF PREPLANNING [1]

The preplanning phase of the interview consists of organizing the material and planning possible conversational topics in the interview. This planning will be done just prior to the interview and will not include the steps mentioned previously under the topic background knowledge. The first step is to locate and memorize (if the interviewer is a beginner) several possible opening sentences. For example, the interviewer may open the conversation with a leading question such as, "How can I help you today?" (Introducing the opening sentence with *how* is usually superior to the use of *who*, *when*, or *what*.) Such an opening would put the student at ease and encourage him to talk. Opening sentences that place the student on the defensive should be avoided. Questions of this type are, "What is it that you want?" or "Who sent you to see me?" In many situations the interviewer may desire to plan a pre-interview conversation before delving into the student's problem. Topics appropriate for this purpose are hobbies, sports, or school events. After making the student comfortable, the interviewer may apply a leading question to focus attention on the purpose of the interview.

To obtain an overall picture of the individual's experience, a second step in preplanning is to review briefly the information collected about the student. This procedure helps the interviewer to become acquainted with the individual without asking many needless and pointless questions. It is never good to consult the student's records while talking with him. Data may be reviewed before the interview begins in order to identify major interests, abilities, and achievements of the individual. If this information is supplemented by the student's academic and extracurricular record, difficulties may be detected early. For example, if the student's tests indicate high potentiality while his grades are low, an area for discussion is suggested. If the student's potentiality is average and grades are low, a review of his participation in extracurricular

activities might reveal another area for discussion. The careful analysis of the records will help the interviewer to explore all possible areas of difficulties thereby avoiding too much time on one problem.

By carefully examining the known information about the interviewee, certain data may be found lacking. If the counselor, in consulting the record, finds it not up to date, he will determine if additional material should be collected. Occasionally, there may appear discrepancies in the data. The interview will provide an opportunity to verify certain facts and to discard those which are useless. The counselor should realize that information collected during the interview is not comparable to that collected by other methods. Thus, to avoid duplication and waste of time, it is imperative that the known information about the student be checked carefully prior to the interview.

### TECHNIQUES OF ESTABLISHING RAPPORT

The importance of rapport in successful interviewing is recognized by experienced counselors. Regardless of the types of techniques used in the rest of the interview, the development of mutual respect and confidence is necessary. In fact, it seems that if adequate rapport is established some degree of success can be obtained regardless of subsequent methods. Obviously, however, both establishment of good rapport and the use of subsequent effective techniques produces the best results.

Rapport is established at the beginning of the interview and should continue until the interview is terminated. In other words, mutual respect and confidence must permeate the whole interview, or the series of interviews. Because the development of good relationships must begin with the initial contact, most of the suggested methods are centered around the opening phases of the interview; however, techniques discussed under the body of the interview are also concerned with the maintenance of rapport. Unfortunately, rapport is an intangible entity characterized by pleasantness, confidence, coöperation, sincerity, and interest—all difficult to measure by tests, difficult to perform in a mechanical nature, and difficult to initiate by recipe or by means of a "bag of tricks."

Published suggestions for establishing rapport are abundant. Most of them emphasize the necessity of being friendly, giving individual attention to interviewee, using a warm-up topic, and demonstrating interests. Nevertheless, these techniques are still general in nature, e.g., there

are many different ways to show a feeling of friendliness or interest. Davis and Robinson's (10) research concerning techniques used by counselors to "reduce resistance or increase rapport" are enlightening to the beginning counselor. A description of these techniques is presented below:

*Sympathy:* The counselor sympathizes with the counselee, *i.e.*, says or implies that he feels sorry for the counselee.

*Assurance:* The counselor encourages the counselee by saying or implying that the counselee's problem will be solved. The counselor's purpose in using this technique is to ease the counselee's fears.

*Approval:* The counselor expresses approval of or agreement with something that the counselee has said or done. The approval is usually, though not necessarily, intended to encourage the counselee.

*Humor:* The counselor attempts to ease the tension in the mind of the counselee by saying or implying something intended to make the counselee laugh. However, the mere fact the counselee laughs following a statement by the counselor does not necessarily indicate that humor was intended by counselor. Nor does the fact that the counselee does not laugh necessarily indicate that the counselor did not intend humor.

*Objective Materials Used:* The counselor makes use of some objective materials during the interview, such as notebook, textbook, chart, diagram, etc.

*Counselor Makes Personal References:* The counselor tells about some of his own experiences to illustrate his point, or refers to himself in such a way as to insert his own personality into the interview by saying, "I think," "I would do this," etc.

*Illustration or Anecdote (non-personal):* The counselor cites an example of the experience of another person or a statement made by another person to illustrate his point. This classification includes "telling a story." This is a non-personal reference.

*Question Form:* The counselor makes a tentative statement of fact or opinion, or interpretation of the counselee's previous statement or statements, in the form of a question, giving opportunity for the counselee to agree or disagree with the counselor. Mere asking for information is not included in this category. The counselor's purpose in asking the question may be to cause the counselee to think further about his problem.

*Counselee's Words Used as a Springboard:* The counselor follows the counselee's lead, repeating the counselee's statement and using it as the beginning of a new topic for discussion.

*Threat:* The counselor says or implies to the counselee that unpleasant results for the counselee are likely to occur if the counselee follows or fails to follow a certain specified course of action.

*Experimental Findings Cited:* The counselor cites some experimental evidence to illustrate or prove a point.

*Expression of Surprise:* The counselor expresses surprise or astonishment at something that the counselee says or does.

*Irony:* The counselor makes a statement which is apparently intended to convey the opposite meaning. Usually, but not necessarily, the irony is used in a derogatory sense.

As would be expected, the frequency of use of these techniques varies from counselor to counselor. According to Davis and Robinson (10: 301) the most frequently used techniques in point of order are: question form, counselor makes personal reference, approval, assurance, illustration or anecdote (non-personal), and humor. However, frequency of use does not imply that these are the best techniques; e.g., "counselor makes personal references," "assurance," and "illustration or anecdote" (non-personal), were most used in low rapport situations and thus not always effective in increasing the level of rapport.

An analysis of Davis and Robinson's list reveals a number of techniques of doubtful value. The techniques of "Question form," "Counselee's words used as a springboard," and "Experimental findings cited" appear, however, to be useful in providing a positive approach to the establishment of rapport. If these techniques were used in an atmosphere of permissiveness, where the interviewee feels free to express his emotional feelings frankly without fear of judgment, then a desirable counseling relationship should ensue. By structuring the interview fairly early—that is, making clear the role that each participant should play—the interviewee will understand his responsibility in the process of solving the problem. Removing the difficulty will be a coöperative process, but the responsibility of decisions will lie with the student. With this structuring completed, direction and role is given to each of the participating individuals.

Two more important factors are worth considering. First, the establishment of rapport is partially a function of the reputation of the interviewer. It follows, therefore, that every interviewer should be consistent in his treatment of students in order to build a reputation of honesty, kindliness, the keeping of confidence, and so on. Second, the primary factor in establishing rapport emerges from the interviewer's ability to deal in human relations. While this ability can be increased by training and experience, a natural warmth and knack of responding to other people's feelings is desirable. We are suggesting that if more careful

attention were given to the selection and training of individuals who are going to do the interviewing, especially counseling interviewing, it may be easier for such people to establish effective rapport.

## TECHNIQUES DURING INTERVIEW

It is difficult, if not impossible, to distinguish the techniques used during the interview from those discussed under establishing rapport. Most methods are used to maintain a desirable relationship. In order that the interviewee will continue to express himself, and that this expression will lead to increased understanding and self-direction, the preceding techniques were centered around the development of mutual respect and confidence. Those we should like to discuss in succeeding paragraphs are concerned with assisting the client in developing self-understanding and in leading to action. The techniques fall into the following general areas: (1) observation, (2) listening, (3) questioning, and (4) talking.[2]

*Observation:* The interviewee should be scrutinized in what he says and does; observation should include his physical reactions such as bodily tensions, blushing, excitability, and dejection. While the interviewer may observe many physical reactions, he may mention but a few to the interviewee, dependent of course, upon the interviewee's interests, attitudes, and training. Keen observation assists the counselor to detect a misjudged approach or inappropriate suggestion, but only through following up a number of cues may the real problem be discovered and discussed. For example, a boy may come in for an interview and as he sits down he shrugs his shoulders and emphatically declares he has no problems. The "shrug" of the shoulders may be much more meaningful than the spoken word. It may, for example, indicate disappointment or hopelessness even though the conversation indicates the opposite. The competent interviewer constantly keeps in mind that people do not always say what they mean or act as they feel.

*Listening:* The ability to listen is a prerequisite to good interviewing and can be developed through training and experience. If the interviewer is a sympathetic listener and friend, he will permit the client to "let off steam" or "cry on his shoulder," both good avenues for a release of tension leading to relaxation.

Interruptions, to give advice, e.g., "This is what I would do under

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[2] Garrett, Annette, *op. cit.*, pp. 30–41. The authors are indebted to this source for many of the suggestions found in this section.

similar circumstances," or to insure the interviewee that he has an interested listener are undesirable. A good listener is one who indicates by relevant remarks or questions that he has grasped the essential points of the story.

Many interviewers, feeling that it is essential to have continual conversation, find it very difficult to tolerate periods of silence during the interview. Although pauses are usually short in duration, they may seem endless to the interviewer. Actually, they are features of a good interview (37). For example, the interviewee may be studying the previous conversation, he may be groping for words or ideas to express his feelings, or he may be weighing the merits of a possible decision. Suffice it to say that pauses should not be filled with irrelevant chattering that will break the trend of thought and flow of feeling. If the silence must be broken, Darley (9) suggests that the interviewee be asked to elaborate on the subject of the last utterance. This will assist in removing the block so oral expression can continue.

The interviewer by being a good listener can detect a projection of feelings and attitudes otherwise unobservable, e.g., he literally listens "in between lines" as one does in "reading between lines." Garrett (16:50–54) presents some excellent suggestions related to this technique. They are worth describing:

The *association of ideas* is a phenomenon well known by counselors as well as laymen. This phenomenon, which operates in the interview, is significant in its operation both in the client and in the interviewer. When the interviewee cites a topic such as lying, stealing, or cheating, and so on, it may act as a stimulus to instigate a stream of association little related to the client's feelings about the topic. The interviewer also needs to recognize his own associations which have likelihood of leading him to incorrect interpretation of what the client is saying. On the other hand, if he listens for the client's own free association, many helpful clues present themselves. The interviewer, for example, may be talking to a young boy accused of stealing. While talking about stealing, the boy may relate how his father has bragged about cheating the grocer. Another example, the girl who describes how "bad" it is for a man and girl to show affection in public, suddenly remarks that her mother and father would allow none of their children to do such things.

It is sometimes difficult to understand why an interviewee suddenly changes the topic of conversation. This *shift in conversation* may indicate that the client feels too much is being revealed about himself. It may be too, that he was entertaining a subject too painful or too personal to

pursue. Sometimes what appears to be a shift is really a continuation; that is, in the "unconscious" shift and continuation both have an intimate relationship. Whatever the cause of the changes in topic, it is significant that the interviewer be aware of shifting thoughts.

*Recurrent references* or a "theme song" are often detected in an interview. For example, an interviewee may continually return to a certain subject—a class, a teacher, or a playmate, about which he talks freely but repeats the same ideas over and over. This tendency to talk "in circles" is both annoying and difficult to change. The method used to execute the change will depend on other clues furnished by the interviewee. Frequently, a simple direct question such as "How would you like your playmate to treat you?" will be sufficient.

The interviewer may often detect a lack of coherence and unity or an evident contradiction in the statement of the client. Unexpected "gaps" in an otherwise coherent story along with repetitive inconsistencies are always significant. Such *inconsistencies and gaps* may indicate the operation of such pressures as guilt, confusion, or ambivalence.

The interviewer should accustom himself to listening to what his client means as well as to what he says. Often *concealed meanings* are more meaningful than verbal speech. The little boy who doesn't like baseball is clearly suffering from "sour grapes" since his real problem is learning how to make friends and to be congenial with children of his own age. Frequently, it is only through the most careful observation of slips of the tongue, facial expressions, and other clues that the interviewer can obtain a concealed meaning.

In addition to the above suggestions, the interviewer should listen for any significant conversation indicative of frustrated desires. Frustration of needs is at the root of most problems of adjustment.

*Questioning:* The central method of interviewing is the fine art of questioning. Characteristic of good questioning are the elements of friendliness, willingness to assist, good formation of statement, and appropriate tone of voice. A sure way of cutting off "conversational flow" from the client is to ask a question that can be answered "yes" or "no" (9). For example, the question "How was your class play received by the audience?" is more productive than "Did you like your class play last night?" Generally, questions permitting a "yes" or "no" answer should be avoided whenever possible.

The wording of the question is often of less importance than the manner and the tone of voice in which it is asked. As Darley observes, the interview is not a cross-examination in which questions are fired as

from a machine gun. Mental probing is dangerous, thus inquiry should proceed only so far as is necessary to be of effective assistance. A good general rule is to question for only one of two purposes: to obtain specifically needed information, and to direct the client's conversation from fruitless to fruitful channels (*34*).

Each interviewer should study his own tendency to ask either too many or too few questions, and seek to curb it. Too many questions may confuse the client; too few may leave many areas unexplored.

In general, leading questions requiring brief answers stimulate conversation. It is well to adjust to the client's pace, neither pushing ahead too fast nor dragging behind too far. A sympathetic approach with carefully selected questions will usually lead to mutual confidence and increased understanding.

*Talking:* Closely related to the questions of the interviewer are his comments. There are no uniform rules which will tell an interviewer how much to say or when to say it. The following are suggestions which pertain to the talking of the interviewer, either directly or indirectly (*9*).

1. *Overtalking the Client.* Many people in an interview may find it difficult to state what they mean concisely, and without some fumbling for words. Do not be in such a hurry that you override or overtalk the client if he is fumbling for phrases he wants. A very frequent error of beginning interviewers is to put words in a client's mouth or talk faster than the client or in some way take the conversation away from the client.

2. *Accepting the Client's Attitudes and Feelings.* At various points in the interview the client may be trying to express the more deep-seated attitudes and feelings that control his behavior. He will become overwhelmed by the task simply because he finds it difficult to put into words some of the more private attitudes, resentments, doubts, and uncertainties. He may also fear that the interviewer will not approve of what he says. The interviewer must indicate to the client that he has accepted, but not passed judgment on, these feelings and attitudes. Merely saying, "I see," or "I understand," or "Yes," will serve to bridge the conversational gap and keep the client talking.

3. *Reflecting the Client's Feelings.* If the client is attempting to put a deeply emotional attitude into words, it may be a difficult and awkward process. He may have a feeling of shame or guilt related to this attitude, or he may hesitate to appear ridiculous in the eyes of another human being. Whatever his motivations, this flow of emotion will

be cut off beyond recovery if the interviewer passes moral judgment on the attitude or turns aside from the underlying feeling that is emerging. The interviewer will have turned aside from the underlying feeling if he asks a question that moves the interview off in another direction.

It is better to say, "You feel that people are being unfair to you," than to tell the complainer, "Everybody has trouble getting along some time." It is better to say, "You would like to get married now but you are not sure that you are still in love with this girl since you have not seen her in so long," than to say, "Go ahead and get married now" or "Wait awhile until you feel better acquainted." It is better to say, "You feel that the interviewer whom you asked about jobs did not do you any good," than to say, "I am sorry, but you must go back to see the interviewer again since he is the one who must help you." Reflecting feelings and attitudes means that you hold up a mirror, so to speak, in which the client can see the meaning and significance of his deep-seated feelings.

4. *Admitting Your Ignorance.* If the client asks a question regarding facts and you don't have the facts, it is better to say, "I don't know," than to run off with a lot of vague generalities or in some other way try to cover up your ignorance. The client is likely to have more confidence in the interviewer who does not hesitate to admit his ignorance. It would be desirable for the counselor to get these facts later, and tell the client where to get them.

5. *Distribution of Talking Time.* Probably the greatest mistake of beginning interviewers is their tendency to talk the client into a coma. There are no hard or fast rules regarding the percentage of time that each of the actors in our play should talk. Within the interview itself there are certain places where the interviewer must do most of the talking. But if the interview is to have a successful effect on the client, there are certain points where he must do most of the talking in developing understanding of himself; in bringing his attitudes to the surface; and in formulating plans of action. Generally speaking, if the interviewer talks considerably more than one-half the time, that interview will be less productive than the one in which the client talks more than one-half the time.

6. *The Vocabulary of the Interview.* We have said earlier that if the ideas and words are beyond the range of the client, learning will be limited. This means that the interviewer must make some judgment of the level of verbal ability and understanding of the person to whom he is talking. He must then choose his words accordingly, striving always to keep both the words and ideas as simple and clear as possible and repeating and rephrasing when necessary.

the interview to a close. The summation of what was accomplished is more beneficial if the interviewee does it than if it is done by the interviewer.

The interviewer should watch for clues of *disinterest* in the client. Such clues are indications that the interview should be brought to an end. Another technique used in closing the interview is for the interviewer to *stand* and start walking slowly toward the door. Whatever specific technique is used, it is important that the interview not be closed until some definite plan of action has been made. This plan may be in terms of the interviewee taking additional tests, reading occupational material, talking with teachers, or consulting with other referral sources. Whatever the plan, if it has been coöperatively accomplished it will provide a natural closing for the interview. The interviewee feels, that if he needs additional help, he is welcome to return. As Kemble (21) indicates, the ending of an interview should be planned, not sudden; clear-cut, not indefinite.

## Limitations of the Interview

Although the interview is the most frequently used technique in counseling, it is also one of the most subjective and difficult to validate. Perhaps this, along with other factors, has been the reason for a scarcity of research, until recently, on the validation of the interviews. Because the interests, aptitudes, and abilities of each individual interviewed are different, the difficulties of validation are increased. The feelings, statements, and conversational topics of individuals vary from day to day; therefore, it is also very difficult to establish the reliability of the interview.

Strang (36:148) suggests that an experimental design be devised where the interview may be contrasted with other techniques for accomplishing certain purposes. Such research may reveal what specific purposes the interview is most capable of accomplishing. One investigation suggests that through research on the effectiveness of the interview a more objective measure of a very subjective and complex situation can be devised (24). Another writer emphasizes the need for measuring the interview by means of controlled studies and suggests the following areas (13:146–147).

1. Time studies of the extent of participation by counselor and counselee.
2. Studies employing different techniques with paired individuals.
3. Use of equated groups, one group being interviewed and the other not.

4. Studies of the before-and-after reactions of the clients.
5. Studies of the prevalence of problems before and after interviewing.
6. Studies of the before-and-after extent of self-understanding by counselors.
7. Controlled studies of the referrals to the service by teachers and others.
8. Controlled follow-up studies of equated groups to measure the lasting effect of interviewing.

Current studies recognize the limitations of the interview with discussion being centered on procedures for increasing the validity and reliability of the technique. However, with all its limitations, the interview is potentially the most important single tool in the school guidance program and the only one that can be used in gaining and presenting certain types of information.

## SUMMARY

Speech is the primary means by which man develops intimate relationships and adjustments with his fellows. While there are different types of interviews, the emphasis in this chapter was on the "counseling interview." A counseling interview was defined as a face-to-face process involving two individuals, one of whom is assisting the other in gaining insight for the purpose of solving his own problems and accepting his responsibilities.

The purposes of the interview are manifold and will vary from situation to situation. Nevertheless, the purposes primarily determine the ultimate structure, methods, and techniques employed. The primary objectives of any interview are: (1) the establishment of mutual respect or rapport, (2) the gaining or giving of information, (3) guidance in solving a problem or planning a course of action, and (4) the releasing of tensions and changing emotional feelings. Two additional purposes are frequently achieved by using the interview in the selection of teachers and as an instrument of research.

The most important factor influencing the effectiveness of the interview is the establishment of rapport between the interviewer and interviewee. Nevertheless, there are many essential factors which can directly or indirectly affect that relationship. The most significant of these factors are concerned with the preparations or precautions made by the interviewer prior to this interview. These factors can be grouped in the following areas: (1) physical setting of the interview, (2) records of

the interview, (3) "confidentialness" of information, and (4) background knowledge of the interviewer.

Much has been written concerning the various parts of the interview, but too little attention has been focused on specific techniques that can be used during these different phases. In this chapter illustrations of specific techniques were presented for preplanning, establishing rapport, interviewing, and closing the interview. The success of any interview will primarily depend upon the ability of the counselor to establish and maintain rapport. In fact, it seems that if adequate rapport is established some degree of success can be obtained regardless of subsequent methods. However, the best results would be produced if careful attention were given to the selection of individuals who are going to do the interviewing, and then train them in the effective use of techniques described in this chapter.

Although the interview is the most frequently used and a vitally important technique in counseling, it is also one of the most subjective and difficult to validate. Current studies recognize the limitations of the interview and the present discussion is centered on procedures for increasing the validity and reliability of the technique.

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# The Counseling Program in Action

BASIC to the success of a counseling program is a guidance point of view permeating the entire faculty with sufficient depth to guarantee the participation of every teacher, administrator, supervisor, and specialist. When every staff member assumes his responsibility to assist in the maximum development of the whole child, then a proper environment has been established for an effective counseling program. When the guidance point of view prevails, it does not mean that guidance workers are coddling students and assuming student responsibilities and obligations. Rather, it means that the school is striving for optimum social, emotional, physical, spiritual, and intellectual development. Each member of the faculty assists the student in achieving the purposes of the school within its framework and structure. The structure may include a curriculum extending into the community or even into the home if it serves the purpose of meeting the needs of the students. Only through meeting the needs of the pupil can the whole child be developed.

If it is assumed that the counselor, as a specialist, is the sole functionary of the counseling service, then the basic premise of total faculty responsibility is ignored and the counseling program is doomed to failure. Only in a very small school can a counselor see all the pupils, and in no school can he assist a student to complete a plan of action without the aid of teachers and administrators. In chapter 2, the various roles of all school personnel were discussed. It bears repeating here that an effective counseling program must include total coöperation, each mem-

ber operating in his respective position at the level of competence which he possesses. Although the counselor should be the leader in this coöperative enterprise, he must be aware that his program will fail if he does not include the faculty in the planning, preparation, and performance of the various guidance functions and services. For example, all school personnel must not only coöperate in the identity of pupils who need help, but they must also refer these students to the proper person for assistance. The following section will discuss some of the possible methods for identifying students with problems.

## IDENTIFYING STUDENTS WITH PROBLEMS [1]

Identifying and establishing a relationship with students who need counseling is an essential part of the counselor's profession. Regardless of the type of problems, which will range from need of information to serious maladjustment, the counselor receives students from three primary sources: (1) those students who seek help on their own initiative, (2) those students who are requested to see the counselor, and (3) those students who are referred by other school personnel.

### Self-Referral Students

That counseling is more effective if the student seeks help on his own initiative, is a universally accepted assumption. In other words, "the individual has become so dissatisfied with some aspect of his behavior that he is actively searching for some way of changing himself" (54: 203). Let us assume for example, that a student is concerned with his inability to make friends; he wants to participate in groups and clubs very much but feels shy and retiring around other students; thus he comes to the counselor's office to receive help.

How can the number of self-referrals be increased? First, without giving the impression that he can cure all ills, the counselor can publicize the services he provides, through speeches in assemblies or clubs, and through circulating written announcements to the students concerning available services. Faculty meetings, talks, and discussions place the faculty in a strategic position to relay information to the student in the classrooms.

When parents are aware of counseling services and believe them to

[1] Many useful suggestions for this section were taken from Nelson, A. G., "Reaching High School Pupils Who Need Counseling," *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals* (February, 1954), 38:9–15.

be worthwhile, they will encourage their children to take advantage of the opportunity for counseling. Publicizing the program should therefore extend into the community.

An excellent approach for encouraging self-referral is by means of such group activities as orientation projects, occupational courses, core curriculum classes, and home-room organizations, where the teacher will discuss the availability of individual counseling and the benefits to be derived from it. It is preferable for teachers to stress these services when questions or problems arise rather than to use a stereotyped approach of reviewing the services at the beginning of each semester or year. An excellent opportunity presents itself during the administration of the school's testing program, when students are uncertain about the purpose and value of tests. An orientation to the uses of tests should include an introduction to the counselor who will assist in the interpretation of test results, when the pupil desires such assistance.

The number of self-referrals continues to increase if the counselor maintains a reputation of friendliness, honesty, and efficiency. Such a reputation can be established and maintained only on the basis of successful counseling over a relatively long period of time.

## Counselor-Identified Problems

If the counselor operates entirely on the basis of self-referrals, many pupils who need counseling will not be contacted at all. Alternative procedures are to select those pupils who need help, or to interview each member of the entire student body. Because of its many advantages, the procedure of interviewing every student should be adopted. Each student will then receive assistance in choosing courses, budgeting study time, and so on, without feeling he has been selected as a problem case. However, where such a procedure is impractical or impossible, due to the number of students, what techniques can the counselor use in selecting those students who need the greatest assistance?

One approach to the problem of selecting students for counseling is the use of a problem check list of which the SRA Youth Inventory and the Mooney Check List are good examples. After a careful study of various methods, Fick (18) concluded that the problem check list is one of the most useful in helping a counselor to determine the problems of students as well as to stimulate thinking and discussion in the interview.

An examination of the cumulative record is a second method to determine which of the students need counseling. Typical items that suggest

need for assistance are: (1) over-age of a child in his grade, (2) frequent moves by the family, (3) a broken home by death or divorce, (4) retardation in reading, (5) excessive absences, and (6) failure in a subject (54). For many counselors, the scattergram has proved to be a quick and excellent device for detecting people who need help.

In general, a combination of some of the above indices is best when designating any individual as a problem student. Methods of detecting symptoms of maladjustment, as indicated in the discussion of foregoing methods, warrant the counselor's attention so that serious problems may be prevented. The reader will note that the suggestions described above are similar to methods for detecting the drop-out student.

Observation is a third method for determining those who need counseling. Many counselors have the opportunity to observe students while teaching, administering tests, or while attending social activities of the school. If the observer understands the principles of motivation along with the behavioral mechanisms used by children to gratify their motives, then the symptoms of maladjustment can be recognized. The counselor can render a valuable service by carefully observing and suggesting that all students can benefit from individual counseling. The information gained while searching for students who need assistance should also be used in the counseling situation itself.

## Students Referred by Others

Many counseling cases are the result of someone's sending the student to see the counselor. Referrals may be made by the teacher, principal, parent, or a community agency. Because no one person can select, detect, or identify all the students who need help, it is imperative that various referral sources operate. If the counselor has a commendable reputation, the number of referrals may be many; nevertheless, the referral system is necessary if the counseling program is to be effective.

An important function of the counselor is to assist each teacher to increase his skill in detecting adjustment difficulties. An in-service training program is beneficial in this respect. Included in this program should be the development of a systematic procedure, containing such agreements as: (1) making arrangements for the student to have an interview with the counselor, (2) sending information to the counselor concerning the reason for referral, and (3) the counselor informing the referral source of results. A list of practical problems which generally

need the help of a counselor should be made and distributed to all the school personnel.

The problems of students are so varied and numerous that classification is difficult. Frequent categories have been in terms of educational, vocational, personal, social, and health problems; however, because any problem involves the whole student, classifications of any kind are arbitrary. Notwithstanding, we should like to use, for the purpose of discussion only, a classification of problems into: (1) problems students encounter while in school, and, (2) potential problems of post-school life.

## HELPING STUDENTS WITH IN-SCHOOL PROBLEMS

The guidance counselor engages in a complex variety of work including contacts with parents and community agencies as well as day-by-day contacts with school personnel. Because of these complex duties, it is once again difficult to make classifications. However, with some misgivings we make the following categories: (1) helping in selection of courses of study, (2) helping the failing student, (3) helping the underachiever, (4) helping with study skills and habits, and (5) helping with subject matter difficulties. It is apparent that while this discussion of how to help students with in-school problems has revolved around techniques for helping the individual through face-to-face counseling, any play of action will include other school personnel and parents.

### Selecting Courses of Study

In the modern elementary school the classroom is "self-contained" with subject boundaries erased. The choice of electives as separate courses is not present until the junior and senior high school. Nevertheless, consideration should be given to those children with exceptional talent by means of such techniques as will be covered adequately in chapter 16. Although these techniques shall not be repeated here, the counselor is concerned with and involved in the orientation of new pupils to the elementary school. With definite objectives in mind, he should explain to the children what activities and studies are carried on in the school. Children should be taught to realize that:

1. In order to be good citizens, girls and boys must go to school to prepare themselves.

2. School is a place where girls and boys coöperate with the teacher and other children.
3. Courtesy, kindness, helpfulness, thoughtfulness, dependability, initiative, and self-control are very important, and are a big part of school-work.
4. Mastery of certain tool subjects is necessary in order for children to get along in the present and in the future. They must learn to read, write, spell, and know something about numbers (20).

If these objectives are achieved, the new elementary school pupil will not only become acquainted with some of the activities, but will also develop some understanding concerning why these experiences are necessary. Thus, an effective groundwork is being established for future choice of subjects in high school.

The choice of electives in the high school [2] involves a careful analysis of the student's plans, abilities, and opportunities. Along with such an analysis, a process of teaching must occur which answers such questions as, "Why can't I take this class?" "What good will this course do me?" "Why does everyone have to take this?"

The counselor should proceed by obtaining, first of all, information concerning the student's future plans. The cumulative record should be revised to supplement data gathered from the student. Questions such as the following must be answered: Does the plan involve a college preparatory curriculum? Does the student plan to enter the business or industrial world at the completion of his high school? Is the student's plan undefined? As every counselor is well aware, many plans of students are based on unrealistic thinking. These plans should be supplemented by an appraisal of the student's interests, aptitudes, and abilities. Necessary information should include data on health, achievement, aptitudes, personal adjustment, work experience, and family background. Techniques described in Part II of this book should be used for gathering this information.

After the plans and the information for appraisal have been obtained, the primary technique for helping the student in selecting the elective courses is the interview. In the interview the student and the counselor analyze the student's plans in terms of his potentialities and motivation. Through this discussion the participants should come to an agreement concerning the type of curriculum to be followed; namely: college pre-

[2] High school includes both junior and senior high school.

paratory, commercial, vocational, or general. In many high schools only one type of curriculum is available; the guidance process consists of determining what electives would be most appropriate for possible future vocational fields.

Where the plans of the student are undefined, the procedure of selecting try-out courses may permit the student to experience work or study related to his expressed interests. The potentially bright student should probably be encouraged to follow the college preparatory curriculum. After the type of curriculum has been mutually chosen, the counselor should assist the student to select those electives most beneficial to him. This might be done by explaining to the student what is included in the classes, how they relate to the agreed curriculum, and how they aid in his total development. It goes without saying that such an explanation should be in relationship to: (1) the chosen curriculum, (2) the objectives of the school, and (3) the total development of the individual.

A positive approach should be used in the counseling process; that is, the counselor emphasizes what the student can do successfully rather than what he can't do. For example, a counselor might say, "A course in typing would be very beneficial to you since it would help you in your plans of becoming a secretary," rather than "You'd better not take Latin because you will probably fail, and besides you won't need it." The opening of positive doors is more effective than closing some doors and then trying to justify the negative approach. It is extremely important for the counselor to note that if the student does not agree with him in the choice of the curriculum and subsequent electives, *the final choice should always remain with the student.* Of course the effective counselor will attempt to recognize the various alternatives, but force or coercion should not be employed for the purpose of getting the student to follow what the counselor feels is best.

Tentatively scheduled classes should be outlined in the form of a plan sheet. An example of this is found in chapter 17. On this plan sheet is included a program of studies for all the years that the student will be in high school. This has several advantages: (1) it gives the student a sense of direction in his work, (2) it provides progressive goals as he proceeds through school, and (3) the written summary can be referred to frequently by the student and counselor for evaluation and review. Such a procedure is mutually helpful to both counselor and counselee.

*Helping the Failing Student and the Underachiever*

The failing student and the underachiever often have many common problems. Although the underachiever may not be failing, the causes of his underachievement may be similar to those of the failing student. Because of the commonality of causes they are both included in this discussion.

There are many reasons for poor scholastic work; nevertheless, the counselor accepts the challenge of finding the causes. Some of the major reasons are: (1) poor study habits, (2) too many outside activities, (3) excessive academic load, (4) lack of ability, (5) lack of interest, (6) illness or poor physical health, (7) poor academic background or preparation, (8) emotional maladjustment, and (9) concern over home problems. The techniques for gaining information described in Part II of this book and the interview are the primary tools for the counselor in seeking possible causes. These tools should include information gathered from the student, teachers, parents, and others who come in contact with the pupil.

An excellent method for obtaining data from the student and his teachers is suggested by the accompanying questionnaires:

## GUIDANCE DEPARTMENT

### PUPIL'S REASONS FOR LOW SCHOLARSHIP
This report is to help you
Please answer frankly

Name ................    Home Room ........

Subject Failing................    Date ........

Teacher of Subject................    Period........ Room........

I. Please check reasons you believe to be the causes of your poor work in the class reported above.

1. Enrolled late in class
2. Have been repeatedly absent
3. Have not felt well
4. Member of my family has been seriously ill
5. Necessary outside work
6. Too many outside interests
7. Not enough time in class study period
8. Hard for me to study
9. Assignments not clear
10. Can't study in this class study period
11. Not interested in work

| | |
|---|---|
| 12. Failed to hand in work | 18. Don't like teacher |
| 13. Bad conduct on my part | 19. No study hall |
| 14. Did not pay attention | 20. Can't study in study hall |
| 15. Haven't tried very hard | 21. Too many school activities |
| 16. Don't like where I sit | 22. Can't see well |
| 17. Don't like classmates | 23. Others |

II. Answer the following questions:

    1. Do you plan to graduate from high school?
    2. What course?
    3. What plans do you have after graduation?
    4. Have you always scheduled courses which lead to this future plan?
    5. Name course or courses you have ever failed in high school.
    6. How valuable is this failed course to your future plans?

The counselor may find the probable causes by answering the following questions: (1) What is the intelligence of the student? (2) What is his past academic record? (3) Is this a failure in one course or is he failing in all classes? (4) Is the student participating in extracurricular activities to an excess? (5) Are there any signs of physical problems such as bad eyesight, fatigue, etc.? (6) How much time does the student spend on studying? (7) Does the student know how to take notes and prepare for an examination? (8) Are there any indications of home problems? (9) Does the student have a reading disability? (10) If a student is failing only in one course, what part(s) of the subject seems to be giving him the most difficulty? (11) Is the student shy and retiring, suggesting inability in social situations? (12) Does the student show signs of emotional upsets? If the counselor can find answers to the above questions, a suitable plan of action might be initiated to help failing and underachieving students.

If the primary cause of the student's difficulty is centered around his lack of ability,[3] then there appear to be two approaches to a solution. First, the counselor, through discussion, should help the student understand some of his assets and limitations. The primary objective during the counseling process is to help the student select appropriate goals in agreement with his interests, aptitudes, and abilities. Frequently separate

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[3] Lack of ability is used here to mean low intelligence and not specific disability in subject matter areas.

# GUIDANCE DEPARTMENT

## CLASS TEACHER'S REASONS FOR PUPIL'S LOW SCHOLARSHIP

To be filled out for each student who is failing or near-failing. Check the items you believe apply; double-check for emphasis.

Student ................    Home-Room ........

Teacher Reporting................    Date ........

Subject Failing ................    Room ........

Please check the reasons you think are the causes of poor work in the subject. (Kindly use red pencil and check at left.)

I. As shown in assignments
  1. Failed to do required work
  2. Did required work poorly
  3. Did no homework
  4. Little homework, poorly done
  5. Failed to hand in work promptly

II. As shown in use of time
  1. Habitually wasted time
  2. Sought distractions
  3. Very slow at getting to work
  4. Waited to be told what to do

III. Ability to concentrate
  1. Showed slight ability
  2. Easily distracted
  3. Short span of attention

IV. Interest in work
  1. Lacking
  2. Intermittent
  3. Difficult to arouse
  4. Not sincere

V. Providing and caring for equipment
  1. Often forgot
  2. Destructive
  3. Often without pencil, etc.
  4. Slovenly in using materials
  5. Failure to buy books
  6. Loss of equipment

VI. As shown in class attitude
  1. Indifferent
  2. Antagonistic
  3. Sullen
  4. Uncoöperative
  5. Is a "disturbing element"

VII. Specific difficulties
  1. Weak in comprehending reading
  2. Unable to select main thought in paragraph
  3. Poor in spelling
  4. Weak on background
  5. Cannot use reference books intelligently
  6. Inability to follow directions
  7. Inability to organize materials
  8. Inaccurate
  9. Slow
  10. Illegible penmanship

VIII. Additional difficulties
  1. Restlessness
  2. Lack of neatness in work done
  3. Illogical reasoning
  4. Poor vision

courses are unavailable for failing students, thus the classroom teacher must provide for special instruction in his classes. In some cases the counselor may assist the student to enroll in a work-type (occupational) program whereby he can learn through concrete experience in the vocation which is most appropriate for him. In the elementary school the responsibility of providing concrete experience lies with the teacher and may be achieved by taking pupils on field trips and bringing community people into the classroom.[4] The counselor's role, with respect to individuals who fail because of lack of ability, is to assist the students to select appropriate educational goals and to work coöperatively with teachers and administrators to provide a suitable curriculum or program of studies.

## Developing Study Skills and Habits.

Many of the students who fail and underachieve have poor study procedures. Where this cause has been identified as the reason for failure, the student should be given some assistance in the development of efficient study methods. In a large high school, a "How to Study" class or laboratory may answer the purpose, but in most cases the responsibility of helping the student lies with the counselor and teacher. In the elementary school it is very important for the teacher to start the pupil in the correct way of study, e.g., how to budget time, how to participate in activities, and how to use library resources. Severe study problems should be referred by the teacher to the counselor for diagnosis and additional help.

When the counselor interviews a student, he must attempt to discover the specific study habits needed, by administering such a test as the Wrenn Study Habits Inventory (60) and check the results with teachers' reports and observations. The diagnosis of the student's study habits should center around these areas: (1) place to study, (2) planning the student's time efficiently, (3) taking of notes, (4) studying an assignment, (5) preparing and taking an examination, (6) reading habits, (7) personal factors that influence study habits, (8) the effect of attitudes on study, and (9) effective use of the library. After using tests, reports of teachers, and observation to determine areas of inefficiency, the counselor should help the student gain some information

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[4] The reader will find other suggestions for aiding the low ability student in chapter 16.

that will correct these inefficiencies. Suggestions along the following line should be helpful: [5]

1. It is better to study in a place that is free from noise and distraction.
2. It is better to study at regularly designated times. This necessitates the budgeting of time. A budget should include a schedule of the student's weekly activities both in and out of school.
3. If possible, it is better to study a course immediately after taking the course. This minimizes the amount of forgetting that takes place between class and actual studying.
4. Study the text before the class period, taking notes or underlining the important points in the book.
5. Take notes on the important points in the class lecture or discussion.
6. Periodically review both class and textbook notes.
7. Question yourself on an assignment and see if you can answer your own questions.
8. The best preparation for an examination is daily preparation.

The above suggestions are but a few that the counselor will obtain from reference material. In many instances he will have to be very specific in his suggestions to pupils. For example, such questions as these will have to be answered in concrete terms and examples. How shall I take notes? How shall I study for a test? How shall I read my lesson? The counselor will frequently encounter certain attitudes concerning study that will have to be changed before more efficient study habits can be developed. In these cases the counseling approach may be therapeutic.

The mere possession of knowledge of proper study methods is no guarantee that good habits will be developed. After the pupil has acquired the information, the counselor should evaluate its effect by asking teachers to observe the student during his period of study. Without continuous evaluation and application of principles of good study there is little likelihood that transfer will occur.

### Lack of Interest

"I can do the work but I'm not interested in it." Here the student attributes his failure or underachievement to lack of interest. What can the counselor do with such cases? It appears that lack of interest results

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[5] Publications that will be useful are: Wrenn, C. Gilbert, and Larsen, Robert P., *Studying Effectively*, Stanford, California, Stanford University Press, 1949; and Gerken, C. d'A., *Study Your Way Through School*, Chicago, Science Research Associates, 1953.

when: (1) the student has no definite goals, (2) the student sees no relationship between his courses and his goals, (3) the student feels that interests are inherited.

In dealing with these and similar problems, the counselor attempts to review the known information to determine if lack of interest is the actual problem. When the student professes a lack of interest in order to conceal his lack of ability, a careful appraisal should be made of the possible reasons for his doing so. When the student has no goals, the counselor may proceed as in counseling for course selection as described above. The student should understand that any educational goal is achieved progressively only as subgoals are obtained. A student, for example, should understand why it is desirable for him to pursue a civics course even though he plans to be an engineer.

The counselor and teacher should also help the student to understand that many interests are learned and cultivated. It is a fallacy to think that everything one does should be interesting; the realities of life force us all to achieve our goals by occasionally completing an uninteresting task.

### Helping Students with Subject Matter Disabilities

A fourth common cause of failure and underachievement is the inability to cope with specific subject matter in certain courses. For example, a student may be progressing satisfactorily in arithmetic and geography, yet possess a definite disability in reading. Because reading is an essential tool in the learning process, it is more serious than disabilities in other subject areas. As to whether the reading problem is or is not the problem of the counselor, there should be no question. Although it is a responsibility of the instructional staff to assist in removing a reading disability, the counselor's assistance is also required. A reading disability, or any other subject matter disability, is accompanied by an emotional disturbance, and adjustment problems are always a primary concern of the counselor. The steps necessary to assist students who have specific subject matter disabilities are the subject of discussion in the illustrations below: [6]

Initially the counselor must first analyze certain general factors for

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[6] The authors are indebted to Kasiak, Paul T., "Is Reading a Counselor's Problem?" *The School Guidance Worker* (December, 1952), Canada, Vocational Guidance Center, University of Ontario, for many of the suggestions on this topic.

possible deficiencies, and this, followed with a diagnosis of certain specific skills needed in reading. Any one of the general or specific factors, or a combination of both may cause a reading disability. Some of the general factors to be analyzed are:

1. Physical—a physiological weakness of the eye is often the primary factor in reading deficiency, but often teachers and counselors neglect it. A review of the cumulative record may reveal data suggesting a visual deficiency. Counselors should transfer information to teachers who in turn exchange data collected in a normal classroom situation. Until any visual defect is corrected little reading improvement can be expected. The counselor can be of much assistance in soliciting and coördinating community resources from which parents may receive aid.

2. Mental—while the concept of individual differences is well recognized in education today, too little is done in actual practice for providing for them. More specifically, the average teacher still expects every pupil to achieve the same standard in reading. Of the possible tools which can be chosen to analyze the student's abilities, the mental ability test is the most useful. Good examples of these are the Differential Aptitude tests and the SRA Primary Mental Ability tests. From these tests a profile can be used to interpret such scores as verbal meaning, reasoning, perception, space, and number. Important information for diagnosis of weaknesses from which suggestions can be obtained for remedial areas is available in the results of achievement tests. For example, the California Reading Test, elementary level, has the following sub-headings: word form, word recognition, meaning of opposites, meaning of similarities, following directions, reference skills, and interpretation. When achievement test results are used in conjunction with a mental ability test, some of the specific factors in reading difficulties can be found and a remedial program initiated.

3. Emotional—because of the close relationship, it is rather difficult to tell whether a reading difficulty causes the emotional problem, or the emotional problem causes the reading difficulty. It is certain that pupils who perceive themselves as inferior to their classmates in reading will, in time, turn to antisocial behavior. On the other hand, pupils who are beset with worry and personal problems will have an emotional interference with achievement in reading. It is the responsibility of the counselor to assist these pupils in solving their personal problems and thus removing emotional interference to classroom learning.

4. Interests—every counselor is aware that a knowledge of the likes

but also a complex and intricate world of employment. The steps to assist the student to make an occupational choice are: (1) appraising the student's abilities and interests, (2) analyzing occupations in which the student has an expressed interest, and (3) trying to match the requirements of the occupation with the abilities of the student.

APPRAISING THE STUDENT'S ABILITIES AND INTERESTS

Chapter 5 discussed the types of necessary information about the student, and Part II was devoted to a discussion of various techniques used in gaining such information. Here we are concerned with appraising the student's abilities and interests. The counselor must also make an appraisal of the pupil's stated occupational choice in terms of the following questions:

1. Has the client any vocational preferences?
2. Are his choices dictated by emotion, glamour, or romance?
3. Have parents or others dominated his occupational selection?
4. Is it a personality problem, lack of occupational information, or both which is responsible for his inappropriate choice?
5. Does he require occupational information in order to judge whether his choice is good?
6. Will occupational information help him to develop confidence so that he can succeed in an occupation?
7. Does he know about job family relationships?
8. Is he aware of the trends in the occupation which he is considering?
9. Is he prepared to shift his plans in order to meet changed employment conditions?
10. Does he know the lines of progress in his chosen field?
11. Does he know how to secure additional occupational information when he requires it? *(14)*

Answers to the above questions by the client and counselor will provide an adequate basis for effective counseling. It is obvious that many of them cannot be answered without a careful study of occupational information.

STUDYING OCCUPATIONS

Many students receive information about various occupations through classes or group procedures. While such a method is valuable, it should not be assumed that it is unnecessary to cover it in individual counsel-

the analysis of the general and specific factors involved in reading, and (4) soliciting and using all community resources that will aid the student in improving his reading skills. The actual instructional phase of the remedial reading program should be the concern of qualified teachers. However, a coöperative relationship between these teachers and the counselor is essential not only for effective instruction but for effective guidance as well.

### Integrative Summary

Counseling students with in-school problems is an important function of the counselor. In our discussion we have described techniques useful to the counselor in assisting students: (1) who are failing or underachieving, (2) who need assistance in developing proper study habits, (3) who indicate lack of interest, (4) who have subject matter disabilities, and (5) who have difficulty in choosing courses.

Many of these techniques have been described in terms of the failing or underachieving student, but they can also be applied to other students. It should become increasingly apparent that all techniques of appraisal should be integrated into the counseling process for effective diagnosis, development of understanding, and initiating a plan of action. It should also become more apparent that going forward with a plan of action involves many of the techniques and coöperative relationships discussed in Part IV of this book.

## HELPING STUDENTS PLAN FOR POST-HIGH SCHOOL LIFE

Cheney (*12*) found in a study of high school boys and girls that 68 percent of them were concerned with problems relating to selection and training for a vocation; that is, two-thirds of the students were concerned about: (1) selecting the right vocation, (2) going to college, and (3) going to other schools. Individual counseling is necessary in these areas if the adjustment needs of pupils are going to be met. In the following few paragraphs techniques are discussed that should prove useful to the counselor in assisting students to solve problems of post-high school life.

### Selecting the Right Vocation

Factors involved in making a vocational choice are very complex and a challenge to the skill and competence of both student and counselor. In the process of counseling we have not only a complex human being

2—Service organizations
3—Agricultural, fishery, forestry, and kindred occupations
4 and 5—Skilled occupations
6 and 7—Semiskilled occupations
8 and 9—Unskilled occupations

### THE UNITED STATES CENSUS OF OCCUPATIONS (48)

1. Professional, technical, and kindred workers
2. Farmers and farm managers
3. Managers, officials, and proprietors, except farm
4. Clerical and kindred workers
5. Sales work
6. Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers
7. Operations, and kindred workers
8. Private household workers
9. Service workers, except private household
10. Farm laborers and foremen
11. Laborers, except farm and mine

### THE UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE CLASSIFICATION OF INEXPERIENCED WORKERS (51)

*0–X Professional, Technical, and Managerial Work*

0–X1 Artistic Work
0–X2 Musical Work
0–X3 Literary Work
0–X4 Entertainment Work

0–X6 Public Service Work
0–X7 Technical Work
0–X8 Managerial Work

*1–X Clerical and Sales Work*

1–X1 Computing Work
1–X2 Recording Work

1–X4 General Clerical Work
1–X5 Public Contact Work

*2–X Service Work*

2–X1 Cooking
2–X2 Child Care

2–X5 Personal Service Work

*3–X Agricultural, Marine, and Forestry Work*

3–X1 Farming
3–X8 Marine Work

3–X9 Forestry Work

*4–X Mechanical Work*

4–X2 Machine Trades

4–X6 Crafts

ing.[8] "The use of occupational information is a highly personalized, individualized matter governed by considerations basic to any type of adjustment or skilled counseling" *(10)*. It appears that using a group method for presenting occupational information combined with individual techniques is most effective *(45)*.

In studying any occupation the student should give some consideration to the following factors:

1. A description of the work which should include the duties, responsibilities, and factors involved in the job.
2. The working conditions, which should consider day or night work, inside or outside work, vacation, type of people working around, physical conditions, etc.
3. The qualifications necessary for success in the job. Such factors as mental ability, special aptitude, physical requirements, method of entrance, and the school should be analyzed.
4. The preparation that is necessary for entrance is important. Factors such as educational training, apprenticeship training, state requirements, licenses, should be examined.
5. The opportunities in the occupation should be studied and consideration given to such factors as availability of jobs, employment trends, and future outlook.
6. The remunerations of the occupation such as salary, prestige, satisfaction, social contribution, and the like should be considered.
7. Summarization of advantages and disadvantages of the job.

In order to aid the student in the study of occupations, the counselor must know the world of work. While there are around 40,000 different jobs in the United States, it is unnecessary for the counselor to know each one for they have been grouped and classified according to categories which will aid him in his understanding of the occupational world. Three of the basic classifications with major occupational groups are as follows: [9]

### The United States Employment Service Classification *(50)*

0—Professional and managerial occupations

1—Clerical and sales occupations

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[8] Group procedures for presenting occupational information are given in chapter 19.

[9] Information about others with explanation of coding system can be found in Max F. Baer, and Edward C. Roeber, *Occupational Information: Its Nature and Use*, Chicago, Science Research Associates, 1951.

pational library, while highly desirable for other purposes, does not serve a useful function in counseling. It is likely to confuse rather than to help.

2. The counselor should ask the client to report his reactions to the assigned sources of occupational information. In most instances these reports will be oral and will form a part of a discussion with the counselor in which the counselor assists the client to evaluate the obtained information in light of the client's aptitudes, interests, and personality traits.

3. Other things being equal, the more capable the client is, the less attention he needs to pay to the economic, social, and political factors which affect employment. The less capable he is, the more attention he should give to these factors. When a field becomes overcrowded, members of the second group will experience difficulty in competing successfully for jobs (14:14).

When the above principles are applied, it is inferred that the counselor will send the pupil to firsthand occupational sources such as stores, banks, accounting offices, garages, and the like. Here the pupil will be able to see those factors which are involved in the job. Later the counselor should aid him in evaluating what he has seen and learned through conversation and inquiry.

During the process of evaluating the information about certain jobs, the data should be related in terms of the student's interests, aptitudes, and abilities. A systematic way for relating the information is through the use of the Minnesota Occupational Rating Scale. By this technique the requirements of the job are ascertained and these followed by an *evaluation of the same requirements in the individual. If a favorable* comparison is made, a favorable vocational choice is indicated in terms of abilities and interests. It is fortunate if interests and abilities coincide, but in the case of discrepancy between interests and abilities, abilities should be given priority. While interests suggest a stronger motivation, it is difficult for motivation to overcome a deficiency in abilities. It should be noted also that interests are at least partially learned; and if a student can perform required tasks there will be a good opportunity for interests to develop.

Often in comparing job requirements with the client's abilities and interests it is found that the level of aspirations of the student is too high. The counselor then needs to help the counselee select a vocational goal at a lower level. In this respect, it should be noted that all

6–X *Manual Work*

6–X2 Observational Work          6–X6 Elemental Work
6–X4 Manipulative Work

This latter classification from Part IV of the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* is extremely important for counselors, for it can be used in counseling with students who have had no occupational experience. It is based on fields of work and lists characteristics of workers that are significant for that field.

In addition to the information about occupations that can be found through a study of these classifications, the good counselor will also know what other sources of occupational information are characteristic of good occupational literature, and how to file the literature for effective location and use.[10] He should be aware of his responsibility in collecting information about state and local jobs. While a knowledge of the national outlook and trends is important, it is much more important for the counselor to keep informed, through state and local employment offices, of the occupational opportunities in the immediate locality.

The effective dissemination of occupational information to the client is the aim for gathering such material. A counselor may gather much occupational literature and classify and file it in a most efficient method; but if such information fails to get into the hands of the student, it has little value. In addition, the good counselor must have a realistic understanding of occupational life and be able to relate it to the individuals who come to him for help (5:3).

RELATING ABILITIES TO OCCUPATIONS

When the pupils come to the counselor for assistance in a vocational choice, the counselor will seek out the information previously mentioned. During the interview he will begin to orient the student to those occupations in which the student has expressed an interest. The effective use of occupational information in counseling depends upon the counselor's adherence to three general principles stated as follows:

1. In assisting the client to solve his problems, the counselor should direct him to specific occupational information sources. Browsing in the occu-

[10] For sources of occupational information, methods of filing, and how to evaluate occupational literature the reader is referred to Walter J. Greenleaf, *Occupations: A Basic Course for Counselors*, Occupational Information and Guidance Series, no. 16, Washington, D.C., Federal Security Agency, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1951.

*pational library, while highly desirable for other purposes, does not serve a useful function in counseling. It is likely to confuse rather than to help.*

2. The counselor should ask the client to report his reactions to the assigned sources of occupational information. In most instances these reports will be oral and will form a part of a discussion with the counselor in which the counselor assists the client to evaluate the obtained information in light of the client's aptitudes, interests, and personality traits.

3. Other things being equal, the more capable the client is, the less attention he needs to pay to the economic, social, and political factors which affect employment. The less capable he is, the more attention he should give to these factors. When a field becomes overcrowded, members of *the second group will experience difficulty in competing successfully for jobs (14:14).*

When the above principles are applied, *it is inferred* that the counselor will send the pupil to firsthand occupational sources such as stores, banks, accounting offices, garages, and the like. Here the pupil will be able to see those factors which are involved in the job. Later the counselor should aid him in evaluating what he has seen and learned through conversation and inquiry.

During the process of evaluating the information about certain jobs, the data should be related in terms of the student's interests, aptitudes, and abilities. A systematic way for relating the information is through the use of the Minnesota Occupational Rating Scale. By this technique the requirements of the job are ascertained and these followed by an *evaluation of the same requirements in the individual.* If a favorable comparison is made, a favorable vocational choice is indicated in terms of abilities and interests. It is fortunate if interests and abilities coincide, but in the case of discrepancy between interests and abilities, abilities should be given priority. While interests suggest a stronger motivation, it is difficult for motivation to overcome a deficiency in abilities. It should be noted also that interests are at least partially learned; and if a student can perform required tasks there will be a good opportunity for interests to develop.

Often in comparing job requirements with the client's abilities and interests it is found that the level of aspirations of the student is too high. The counselor then needs to help the counselee select a vocational goal at a lower level. In this respect, it should be noted that all

6–X Manual Work

6–X2 Observational Work       6–X6 Elemental Work

6–X4 Manipulative Work

This latter classification from Part IV of the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* is extremely important for counselors, for it can be used in counseling with students who have had no occupational experience. It is based on fields of work and lists characteristics of workers that are significant for that field.

In addition to the information about occupations that can be found through a study of these classifications, the good counselor will also know what other sources of occupational information are characteristic of good occupational literature, and how to file the literature for effective location and use.[10] He should be aware of his responsibility in collecting information about state and local jobs. While a knowledge of the national outlook and trends is important, it is much more important for the counselor to keep informed, through state and local employment offices, of the occupational opportunities in the immediate locality.

The effective dissemination of occupational information to the client is the aim for gathering such material. A counselor may gather much occupational literature and classify and file it in a most efficient method; but if such information fails to get into the hands of the student, it has little value. In addition, the good counselor must have a realistic understanding of occupational life and be able to relate it to the individuals who come to him for help (5:3).

RELATING ABILITIES TO OCCUPATIONS

When the pupils come to the counselor for assistance in a vocational choice, the counselor will seek out the information previously mentioned. During the interview he will begin to orient the student to those occupations in which the student has expressed an interest. The effective use of occupational information in counseling depends upon the counselor's adherence to three general principles stated as follows:

1. In assisting the client to solve his problems, the counselor should direct him to specific occupational information sources. Browsing in the occu-

[10] For sources of occupational information, methods of filing, and how to evaluate occupational literature the reader is referred to Walter J. Greenleaf, *Occupations: A Basic Course for Counselors,* Occupational Information and Guidance Series, no. 16, Washington, D.C., Federal Security Agency, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1951.

*Selecting a College*

Helping students to choose a higher institution of learning requires a high degree of skill and much information. The gathering of information alone requires much time. First, the counselor must assemble college catalogs so he and the student can examine them. Because of the constant change in curriculum, requirements, fees, dormitories, and so on, these catalogs should be replaced by new ones periodically. The counselor should also have a guide book to all the colleges throughout the United States (32). All sources of college information should be accessible to students; many schools, for example, place catalogs on an occupational shelf in the library. Because a catalog or written information about a college does not always give a clear picture of the institution, the counselor should seek additional information. For example, from the other staff members of the school, he may gather information about the college each attended. On occasion the counselor may use teachers as a source of referral if the student is considering a familiar college. Reports of high school alumni who are attending college is another helpful way for the counselor to obtain information. Briefly, the counselor must have as much written or published information about colleges as possible; the colleges of the immediate or nearby vicinity will be the most frequently chosen.

The problems of college selection are centered in the following three areas: (1) needs of students, (2) requirements of college, and (3) status of college.

NEEDS OF STUDENTS

One of the first considerations in choosing a college is the vocational goal of the student. At least some of the following questions are pertinent: What type of major does the student intend to pursue? Does the student plan to go two years or four years? Is a general education or a specific professional training desired? Does the college offer a program of studies in the area of the student's vocational choice? If the student enters this college will he have to transfer after two years? In all cases, the student should be encouraged to select that college which is most appropriate for his vocational choice.

A second consideration in selecting a college is the financial status of the student and his parents. Frequently, students cannot attend the school of their choice because of lack of money. Where this is the case,

jobs contribute to the welfare of people, and that one does not have to be a college graduate to be a success in life. Many times changing the level of aspiration of the student becomes a therapeutic task.

In addition to considering the abilities of the student and the requirements of occupations, many other factors have to be given consideration in a vocational choice—for example, the desires of the student's parents, financial status of the family, and availability of training. It may do little good to make a selection of vocational choice in the scientific field at the professional level if the student has no way to finance a college education. When this is the case, it would be advisable to ascertain the opportunity for scholarships, and so on. After consideration is given to the occupational outlook and trends, a choice is usually best in an area where job opportunities are increasing rather than decreasing or remaining about the same. The high school counselor should assist the student to arrive at a vocational choice in terms of broad categories or fields of work. It is unwise for the counselor to isolate a single occupation for the student because of the usual rapidly changing interests of adolescents, plus the limitations of desirable alternative vocational outlets. For example, a high school student should be assisted in making a vocational choice in terms of the mechanical field rather than in terms of a specific mechanical job. This counseling procedure is best because long term prediction for success in specific occupations is not sufficiently accurate, and the selection of a broad field permits the student to narrow to a specific job as he gets older.

The discussion in foregoing paragraphs suggests the importance and difficulties encountered in helping the student make a suitable vocational choice. We should like to conclude by pointing out some of the common mistakes made in choosing an occupation:

1. Making choice on popular appeal or glamour.
2. Making choice on salary paid or social prestige.
3. Making choice on incomplete information or outright misinformation.
4. Trying to please or satisfy parent or close family friend.
5. Inability to choose between two unrelated occupations.
6. Failing to consider opportunities for employment.
7. Failing to recognize own abilities, interests, or health.
8. Failing to consider cost of training or education.
9. Failing to consider previous work experience.
10. Failing to examine a wide variety of occupations.[11]

[11] A reprint of *Vocational Guidance Leaflet: Los Angeles, California School.*

should obtain them before counseling a student who is considering a certain college.

As a word of caution we should say that the procedures considered in foregoing pages have been concerned with those students who have made an appropriate selection of a vocational goal requiring college training. We have assumed that an appropriate vocational choice has been made by use of the techniques discussed in the preceding parts of this chapter.

## STATUS OF COLLEGE

Two important considerations should be given to the factor of status of college; first, the accreditation of the college; and second, placement services. Generally speaking, those colleges having been officially accredited by a national, regional, or state accrediting agency have a superior educational standing to those who have not received such accreditation. The accrediting agency, such as the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, establishes certain criteria for determining the quality of the education provided. During the past several years the quality of the criteria and methods for measuring them have continually improved. It is the responsibility of the counselor to have information available on accredited and non-accredited schools so he can help the student to make an appropriate choice.

The importance of the second factor, placement services, is inferred by these questions: Does the college have a reputation for placing their graduates? Do they help place those students who do not finish college? Does the college help students to find part-time work?

While the average high school student may have little concern about job placement after graduation from college, it does play an important role in long term planning. It is important, therefore, that the counselor should have a knowledge of the quality of the college placement service.

In summary, the process of helping a student to select an appropriate college depends first upon the proper selection of a vocational goal. When the goal requires a college education, the counselor should assist the counselee to explore his needs, the requirements of the college, and the status of the college before making a final choice. Once the choice is made, assistance is needed in applying for admission. This usually involves writing for an application form, filling it out, and sending it

consideration should be given to the availability of loans, scholarships, and part-time work.

A third consideration in selecting a college is the extracurricular offerings. The size of the school; the extent of clubs, social organizations, student government, intramural activities, and athletic program, are all important factors in the total development of the student.

A fourth consideration in selecting a college is the desire of the student or parent. Too often this is the only consideration, but through effective counseling it may be placed in its proper role; e.g., the student should select the college of his desire if it satisfies some of the factors mentioned above. However, the vocational goals and the financial status of the pupil should take preference over wishes of student and parent.

## REQUIREMENTS OF COLLEGE

Although admission requirements vary considerably from institution to institution every college has them. At one extreme the mere filling out of an application blank and submitting a high school transcript may fulfill the admission requirements. At the other extreme, the student's academic record and abilities may be closely analyzed before he will be admitted. Questions such as the following will assist student and counselor to determine whether college entrance requirements can be met: Are my high school grades good enough to enter this college? Do I possess the mental abilities to be successful in this college? Have I taken the proper courses required for admittance? What indications are there that I have the personal qualities deemed necessary by the school?

The above questions should be carefully analyzed for each college being considered. Because there is a great variation in intelligence required for success from one college to another, the counselor should seek information concerning the level of student-intelligence in various colleges. The manuals for numerous standardized tests state norms for various sections of the country, as well as for various types of collegiate institutions. The counselor should be thoroughly familiar with these norms when assisting the student to select a college. Fortunately, some states have a state-wide norm for their institutions of higher learning and individual colleges also often make their local norms available to high school counselors. If the counselor does not have such data, he

9. After one has taken the trouble to make a vocational plan and train himself in specialized skills, will the armed forces consider these skills?
10. What about a life long career in the armed forces?

In addition to the answers to the above questions, the prospective draftee needs knowledge concerning the inductional procedures and requirements. This will not only help him to plan but it will also relieve much of the anxiety and tension which accompanies the unknown.

While the Selective Service Law only affects the boys directly, it does have a great impact indirectly, on the girls. Never before has the demand for women workers been as great as it is today. If the present defense period continues or universal military training is adopted, every girl will be required to make maximum use of her abilities.

What can the schools do, and specifically the counselor, to aid the youth in meeting these problems? (*36:13–20*) First, they can provide timely and accurate information. Information concerning manpower needs, induction procedures, range of occupational fields within the respective military fields, and educational opportunities. Also, induction and classification procedures can be given to all prospective draftees. Much of this information may be given in group situations. Kenyon (*30*) describes such a group program at Davenport, Iowa, high school. He suggests the use of local resource persons, such as draft officials, recruiting officers, and others who can speak with authority because of previous military experience. The use of films such as the Coronet series, *Are You Ready for Service,* provided background for meetings. Even though factual information is provided in groups, every counselor should have a knowledge of this important data so that he can use it in a face-to-face situation.

Secondly, the school should provide the students with essential information about themselves. The military service wants to know the interests, aptitudes, and abilities of each draftee in addition to data concerning family, health, and socio-economic factors.

Because he will assist youth in their educational and vocational planning, the counselor plays an important role for school and society. In order to perform an adequate service, the counselor should become acquainted with reference material pertaining to the problem; [12] recruiting offices, and state and local employment agencies, are excellent

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[12] Suggested references can be found in the bibliography at the end of the chapter.

in to the college along with a transcript of the high school academic record.

## Selecting Other Schools

There are a number of high school students who will pursue their education in business schools, technical schools, trade and vocational schools. In order to assist students who will pursue education other than college, the counselor must accumulate a vast amount of occupational literature. The process of assisting the student will be similar to that described in selecting a college. Consideration should be given to the needs of the student, requirements of the school, and status of the school. The factors are similar to that of the college except they should be applied to the particular type of school in question.

## Special Problems of the Times

At the present time every able high school boy must include in his educational and vocational planning a minimum of 24 months in the military service. Because of the present military situation every high school youth has additional and more perplexing problems than were present two decades ago. The responsibility of the school in meeting the needs of the youth has increased, and consequently the work of the counselor has increased. For example, it is now necessary to include the two or more years of military service in the educational and vocational goals of the student. Some of the special educational problems of high school youth created by compulsory military service are (36):

1. Whether to wait for his draft call or to enlist.
2. Whether to accelerate his high school education by going to summer school or doubling courses.
3. Whether to decelerate—that is to remain in school as long as possible so as to postpone the draft call.
4. Whether to shift to new courses.
5. Whether to sacrifice participation in activities so as to improve marks.
6. Whether to leave school now for employment.
7. Whether planning to go to college with the purpose of accepting deferment under one of the college deferment plans will tab him as unpatriotic or an intellectual snob.
8. How to make a vocational plan which includes a period for military training or defense production, or both, and still hold to a long-range vocational goal.

culties. In assisting the student in the solution of his problem, all the techniques of appraisal should be integrated into the counseling process for effective diagnosis, development of understanding, and initiating a plan of action. Going forward with a plan of action involves many of the techniques and coöperative relationships discussed in Part IV of this book.

The majority of high school boys and girls are concerned with problems relating to selection and training for a vocation. Specific post-school problems are: (1) selecting the right vocation, (2) going to college, and (3) going to other schools. The steps in assisting the student make any occupational choice are: (1) appraising the student's abilities and interests, (2) analyzing occupations in which the student has an expressed interest, and (3) trying to match the requirements of the occupation with the abilities of the student. Helping students to choose a higher institution of learning, business school, or trade school requires a high degree of skill and much information. The problems of selecting an appropriate school are centered in making an objective and accurate evaluation of: (1) needs of student, (2) requirements of school, and (3) status of school.

At the present time every able high school boy must include in his educational and vocational planning a minimum of 24 months in the military service. Because of the present military situation, every high school youth has additional and more perplexing problems than were present two decades ago. The schools can assist youths in meeting these problems by: (1) providing timely and accurate information, and (2) providing the students with essential information about themselves.

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sources for information. The counselor will follow the same procedure in vocational counseling as has been previously discussed, but additional emphasis should be given to (36:17):

1. The major fields of opportunities within the armed forces which most nearly fit the student's life goals should be considered along with civilian occupations.
2. The selection of type of industry or business in which student will seek employment prior to entering and following his discharge from the armed forces.
3. The type of training he will take prior to entering service and following his discharge from the service.

It is obvious that the only change in vocational planning is to include military service within the vocational plans. Wherever possible educational training should also contribute to military service duties, and military training should contribute to the post-military service occupations. The educational planning of the student in military training should be similar to the student who is encouraged to remain in school to complete his education. Educational planning should prepare youth to fit into society, whether that society be civilian or military.

## SUMMARY

Basic to the success of a counseling program is a guidance point of view permeating the entire faculty, with ample opportunity for participation of every teacher, administrator, supervisor, and specialist.

Identifying and establishing a relationship with students who need counseling is an essential part of the counselor's profession. Regardless of the type of problems, which will range from need of information to serious maladjustments, the counselor receives students from three primary sources: (1) those students who seek help on their own initiative, (2) those students who are requested to see the counselor, and (3) those students who are referred by other school personnel.

It is extremely difficult to classify the problems of students as any problem involves the whole student. For the purpose of discussion only, problems have been classified into: (1) problems students encountered while in school, and (2) potential problems of post-school life.

In-school problems of students considered in this chapter were: (1) selecting courses of study, (2) failing school work, (3) under-achievement, (4) study skills and habits, and (5) subject matter diffi-

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CHAPTER 15 ─────────────

# Placement

THE guidance program has often been defined in terms of the services it provides. Included within the program is the placement service without which the guidance program would be incomplete. It would be illogical to gather information about the pupil, provide occupational and educational information for him, assist him in the selection and achieving of educational and vocational goals and then stop without aiding him to select and obtain employment. This lack of articulation would defeat the purpose for which the guidance program is established—that is, the development and adjustment of the student to the maximum of his abilities. The placement service assumes a logical sequence in the guidance program by providing the student with an opportunity to utilize the development he has achieved. The placement service embraces all those activities which assist the student in his post-high school adjustment whether it be full-time employment, part-time work, or additional educational training. An organized and systematic program is necessary if the needs of the students are going to be met.

The determination of the responsibility for the placement service for school youth is debatable. On one side of the question is that group of authorities who say that placement is the concern of the school. They argue that placement is the final link in the chain completing the students' education and to delegate to someone else this responsibility is to ignore an obligation. A further argument notes that the school,

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out of local needs. By the same token, there is no reason why a plan once adopted, should not change as conditions alter.

5. There should be sufficient interchange of information by all agencies to permit each to achieve its objective of maximum service to youth and society.

6. Students, employers, labor groups, teachers, and parents need to be informed about and support the work of the placement program in their community if it is to be successful.

Before leaving this discussion we would like to re-emphasize the importance of adequate occupational placement for the youth of our country. Following the close of World War II more than four million boys and girls under 21 years of age, exclusive of those in the armed service, *were out of school and in the labor market (35)*. This same study indicated that two million young people normally enter the labor market each year. The problem is intensified when "there is practically no positive correlation between what graduates plan to do in the world of work and the employment opportunities open to them" (27). The problems met by out-of-school youth in attempting to make an adequate occupational adjustment are numerous. Although they are not acquainted with urban life, many of these students are migrating to urban *centers in search of jobs. Confusion and disillusion are often the result.* Difficulty in making an effective vocational adjustment can usually be traced to one or more of the following reasons (2).

1. Young rural high school graduates are not aware of the types of jobs they will most likely find in urban centers.

2. Often the job-seekers do not know how much training is required for the particular jobs they want.

3. Job-seekers do not anticipate seasonal layoffs that automatically accompany some occupations.

4. The rural applicants underestimate the length of time normally required *to find a job in urban centers.*

5. The job-seekers do not anticipate the lapse of time between their actual *hiring and the receipt of the first pay check. Unless workers from out of town have some means of supporting themselves for a month or more,* they may be forced to return home or borrow money to maintain themselves.

6. The job-seekers do not understand the hiring or promotional policies of large firms.

7. Rural applicants are usually unaware of the job opportunities offered through apprenticeship training programs. In addition, they do not real-

through its cumulative records, knows more about the student than anyone else. This information is indispensable in an effective placement program and "with the school as the clearing house of information, there will be avoided that unfortunate condition which permits government agencies and local agencies to attempt to render service, each in apparent ignorance of what the other is doing" (*1*). In communities where no public employment agency is available, the school must necessarily be responsible for the placement of its graduates and withdrawals.

On the other side of the question are those administrators who feel that placement is not a responsibility of the school at all. They argue that the counselor is already overburdened without the additional duties required by the placement service. With state and public agencies available, placement by the school would be a duplication of effort and money. Furthermore, community agencies are much better equipped to do an effective job of placement.

There are many variations of the above points of view, but the writers feel that the schools do have an inescapable responsibility to see that every student has the opportunity for placement service. The extent to which high schools will engage in actual placement procedures will depend upon many factors. The size of the high school, availability of state and public employment agencies, and number of school personnel available are a few of the factors that should be considered. From this point of view, the guidance program will be invariably linked with the community. In selecting the positive values from the two points of view mentioned above, consideration should be given to the following principles (*28*):

1. Placement is a responsibility of all school systems, working in close association with other public and philanthropic agencies to the fullest extent that is feasible.

2. Planning, time, and personnel are required in sufficient measure to discharge the legitimate responsibilities of placement without infringing upon other important school services.

3. Where the state employment service and other public agencies are serving effectively in placement the school should not compete or duplicate, but should coöperate to the fullest extent. This does not imply in any sense a withdrawal from responsibility by the school.

4. There should be a community plan for youth placement, utilizing the coördinated services and efforts of all the interested agencies. The organizational pattern cannot be preconceived or borrowed, but must evolve

out of local needs. By the same token, there is no reason why a plan once adopted, should not change as conditions alter.

5. There should be sufficient interchange of information by all agencies to permit each to achieve its objective of maximum service to youth and society.

6. Students, employers, labor groups, teachers, and parents need to be informed about and support the work of the placement program in their community if it is to be successful.

Before leaving this discussion we would like to re-emphasize the importance of adequate occupational placement for the youth of our country. Following the close of World War II more than four million boys and girls under 21 years of age, exclusive of those in the armed service, were out of school and in the labor market (35). This same study indicated that two million young people normally enter the labor market each year. The problem is intensified when "there is practically no positive correlation between what graduates plan to do in the world of work and the employment opportunities open to them" (27). The problems met by out-of-school youth in attempting to make an adequate occupational adjustment are numerous. Although they are not acquainted with urban life, many of these students are migrating to urban centers in search of jobs. Confusion and disillusion are often the result. Difficulty in making an effective vocational adjustment can usually be traced to one or more of the following reasons (2).

1. Young rural high school graduates are not aware of the types of jobs they will most likely find in urban centers.

2. Often the job-seekers do not know how much training is required for the particular jobs they want.

3. Job-seekers do not anticipate seasonal layoffs that automatically accompany some occupations.

4. The rural applicants underestimate the length of time normally required to find a job in urban centers.

5. The job-seekers do not anticipate the lapse of time between their actual hiring and the receipt of the first pay check. Unless workers from out of town have some means of supporting themselves for a month or more, they may be forced to return home or borrow money to maintain themselves.

6. The job-seekers do not understand the hiring or promotional policies of large firms.

7. Rural applicants are usually unaware of the job opportunities offered through apprenticeship training programs. In addition, they do not real-

through its cumulative records, knows more about the student than anyone else. This information is indispensable in an effective placement program and "with the school as the clearing house of information, there will be avoided that unfortunate condition which permits government agencies and local agencies to attempt to render service, each in apparent ignorance of what the other is doing" (*1*). In communities where no public employment agency is available, the school must necessarily be responsible for the placement of its graduates and withdrawals.

On the other side of the question are those administrators who feel that placement is not a responsibility of the school at all. They argue that the counselor is already overburdened without the additional duties required by the placement service. With state and public agencies available, placement by the school would be a duplication of effort and money. Furthermore, community agencies are much better equipped to do an effective job of placement.

There are many variations of the above points of view, but the writers feel that the schools do have an inescapable responsibility to see that every student has the opportunity for placement service. The extent to which high schools will engage in actual placement procedures will depend upon many factors. The size of the high school, availability of state and public employment agencies, and number of school personnel available are a few of the factors that should be considered. From this point of view, the guidance program will be invariably linked with the community. In selecting the positive values from the two points of view mentioned above, consideration should be given to the following principles (*28*):

1. Placement is a responsibility of all school systems, working in close association with other public and philanthropic agencies to the fullest extent that is feasible.

2. Planning, time, and personnel are required in sufficient measure to discharge the legitimate responsibilities of placement without infringing upon other important school services.

3. Where the state employment service and other public agencies are serving effectively in placement the school should not compete or duplicate, but should coöperate to the fullest extent. This does not imply in any sense a withdrawal from responsibility by the school.

4. There should be a community plan for youth placement, utilizing the coördinated services and efforts of all the interested agencies. The organizational pattern cannot be preconceived or borrowed, but must evolve

out of local needs. By the same token, there is no reason why a plan once adopted, should not change as conditions alter.

5. There should be sufficient *interchange of information by all agencies to permit each to achieve its objective of maximum service to youth and society.*

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6. *The job-seekers do not understand the hiring or promotional policies of large firms.*

7. Rural applicants are usually unaware of the job opportunities offered through apprenticeship training programs. In addition, they do not real-

ize that this type of training is actually a necessity if they plan to become skilled tradesmen.

8. The rural applicants are relatively uninformed about vocational opportunities in general. They come to the city to obtain specific jobs which they heard were open, or, lacking adequate information to make a wise decision, they are "willing to take anything."

9. The job-seekers do not know the best procedures to follow when applying for work.

It is obvious that good guidance techniques would have eliminated many of the above problems. If the guidance services are to be complete, an adequate placement program seems essential.

## Who Should Receive the Benefits of the Placement Service?

Frequently placement has been interpreted as the assistance given to students by placing them in a certain curriculum, activity, or a job. A broad viewpoint would include placement within the school as well as outside its domain. In chapters 14, 16, and 17 a discussion of techniques that could be used in helping to place a student within the school were discussed. To avoid repetition the reader is referred to those chapters, and, for the present discussion, placement will refer to assistance given to students by placing them in a job.

Apparently three main groups benefit from the placement service. (1) Through proper placement services, the employer will be able to employ individuals who are interested and best fitted for the job. This will reduce waste in terms of employee turnover and dissatisfaction. To the employer good placement means dollar and cents in savings and service. (2) The school benefits from increased support from a satisfied public. Effective public relations can be accomplished through a placement service which is performing an efficient job and producing a satisfied clientele. In addition to a moral obligation for assisting youth through placement, the schools also have an obligation for sharing purposes, methods of teaching, and curriculum planning with the public. In other words the school has an obligation of developing good public relations. (3) The students benefit by getting a job. This important service represents a final step in the guidance program—the cumulative result of efficient training and counseling. The numerous benefits to the individual who receives this assistance are essential for maximum adjustment.

The placement service should be provided especially for all those students who leave the school or need assistance in finding part-time

work. This includes the high school graduates as well as the student who leaves school before graduating. Many of the non-graduating students have failed to make an adequate adjustment to the school and its curriculum; if they receive no assistance in job placement, the school has been ineffective in meeting their needs in every way. When we consider that 50 percent of the children who enter the first grade will drop out before completing high school, we realize the school's responsibility to this group is great. The placement service should also assist those students who need to work part-time while going to school, as well as those individuals who desire to work during the summer time or the holidays. If the school has a work experience program, it is frequently the responsibility of the placement service to direct students to job training opportunities. When we note the number of students who can benefit, as well as the assistance rendered to school and community, we recognize the tremendous significance of the placement service as a facet of every guidance program.

It has already been observed that the actual placement procedures are dependent upon many factors. Among the most significant of these factors is the size of the school. The small school may have to take responsibility for all the placement; the large school may act only as a referral source to public or private agencies. Because of variations in schools it is difficult, if not impossible, to describe an ideal pattern. Nevertheless, we should like to describe some of the requirements needed for an effective placement program. In a subsequent section we shall be concerned with a placement program as it involves coöperative activities between school and a community agency.

### What Are the Essential Elements of a Placement Program?

The placement service of a school may be organized according to several patterns. First, we may have a decentralized pattern in which each department is responsible for placement; second, we may find a centralized office responsible for placement; and third, we may have a combination of the decentralized and centralized plans. The centralized plan has the merit of a system as contrasted to incidental or accidental placement.

Regardless of the organization pattern, the placement program must have certain essential elements:

1. *Significant information is needed about the student.* No effective placement can be accomplished if the background, experience, and

abilities of the student are unknown. The information discussed in chapter 5 forms a good basis for effective placement as well as for guidance within the school. Kitson and Newton (*19*) suggest that the following information should be known:

a. Identifying information. This should include such things as the applicant's name, address, telephone number, social security number, height, weight, size, marital status, and birth date.

b. Education and training. This will depend upon the job requirements, but most stress is laid on academic training.

c. Employment record. This data includes names and addresses of previous employers, work time of employment, salary, and reasons for leaving employment.

d. Special information. This will contain a photograph and comments by the interviewer on the applicant's personal appearance and test results.

e. Information concerning referrals given the applicant, as well as the reaction of the employer to the applicant.

In addition to this information, the placement director should have data concerning the student's health and physical condition. Such factors are an important determinant for many jobs.

2. Information about job openings is needed. It is the responsibility of the placement office to seek job openings continuously. In meeting this responsibility the director must instruct students about sources of information concerning job openings and how to appraise these sources. Some of the following techniques can be used:

a. Place the school's name on mailing lists for federal, state, and city civil service announcements.

b. Let all prospective employers in the community know about the school's placement service. A personal visit is more effective than a written letter. The classified section in the telephone directory will be helpful to locate such employers.

c. Coöperate with local, state, and federal employment agencies in the community.

d. Arouse the interests of members of clubs such as the Rotary, Kiwanis, and Lions in the school's placement service. The use of students on their programs to present information about the employment service of the high school is helpful (*15*).

e. Survey the "Want Ads" and "Help Wanted" sections of the local newspaper.

f. Subscribe to professional and trade journals and survey the "Help Wanted" sections of such magazines.

g. Encourage the students and parents to seek job opportunities.

h. Encourage all faculty members to be aware of possible job openings and to notify the placement office of available jobs.

If all administrators, faculty, and students are used in the process an effective program can be established.

3. An adequate system of records is necessary for effective placement. The individual inventory of the student should provide the counselor with a cumulative record of school marks, attendance and punctuality, tests of mental ability and achievement, results of special tests and interest inventories, data on home and family conditions, and periodic ratings on such personal characteristics as responsibility, study habits, coöperation, social adjustment, and personality. Within the inventory will also be a record of physical abilities, extra class participation, and work experience. If the cumulative records of the high school are poor, the placement counselor will need to gather information in those areas where it is insufficient. In order to secure data for every student, a survey card of some type should be used. An example of a job survey card is shown below.

WEST HIGH SCHOOL
Job Survey
1951–1952

Circle Grade:            Advisor ..................

9  10  11  12            Room No. ................

Name ........................................................
      (Last)          (First)          (Middle)

Present Address ........................ Phone No. .............

Male or female .................... Weight ...................
                                         (Pounds)

What time do you get out of school? ...............................

Age ............. Date of Birth ...............................
  (Yrs.)  (Month)           (Month)   (Day)   (Year)

Height........................
  (Feet)   (Inches)

Are you employed at present? ......................
                   Yes or No

If so, where? ................................................
              (Name of Individual or Firm)

If employed, please explain the type of work you are doing . . . . . . . . . . . .

. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .

How many hours a week are you employed? . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .

If not employed, do you desire part-time employment? . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .

If so, please explain briefly the type of work you are interested

in obtaining . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .

. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .

## ATTENTION BOYS ! ! !

Are you interested in doing odd jobs, such as cleaning yards, washing windows, putting up storm windows, cleaning sidewalks, etc.? . . . . . . . . . .

. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .

## ATTENTION GIRLS ! ! !

Are you interested in taking care of small children? . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .

In doing housework? . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .

Junior Employment and Counseling Service

Room 107, West High School

A survey card of this type gives information regarding the employment and/or desire for work of each student. This form is supplementary to the regular school individual inventory and can serve to initiate a follow-up program. At times the placement office is requested to help meet emergency problems. For example, in rural areas farm help is needed at special times and frequently involves an emergency situation. For such occasional purposes a special card as the one given here can be used.

Advisor . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .

Name . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . Class . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .

      (Last)      (First)

Address . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . Phone No. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .

Age . . . . . . . . Height . . . . . . . ft. . . . . . . . . in. Weight . . . . . . . . lbs.

Have you ever worked on a farm? . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . If so,

please give type of farm experience . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .

. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .

FARM SURVEY                          WEST HIGH SCHOOL

Another useful record is the card which introduces the applicant to the employer. Frequently the employer inquires by telephone for in-

formation concerning possible employees; the school, in turn, sends written information about students it recommends. A referral card such as the accompanying one can be used.

<div>

Telephone .....................

To ...........................................................

...............................................................

In response to your request we are introducing ....................

As an applicant for position of ...............................

</div>

| Employer Sign and Return | We appreciate your use of our |
|---|---|
| Employed (Check yes or no) | service and hope you will call |
| Yes ...... Date Start ............ | again. Please check the result |
| No ...... Remarks ............. | of this referral and mail. |
| .................................. | ................................ |
| (Employer's signature) | Junior Employment and |
|  | Counseling Service |

The accompanying form, introducing the applicant to the employer, can be placed on a two-cent post card and addressed to the high school placement office. It can then be returned by mail to the school where it becomes another means for determining the effectiveness of the service. Along with a referral card many employers request confidential information about the prospective employee. In this case, it is the responsibility of the placement counselor to forward such information to them. Examples of the student employment card and the confidential card issued by the placement service to the employer at Sioux City, Iowa (17) are given below.

### STUDENT EMPLOYMENT CARD

Date: February 14, 1950
.....................

Name: Mary Jane Doe    Address: 2122½ Nebraska St., Sioux City, Iowa
............     ................................

Phone: 5–555 Age: 18 Wt.: 121 Classification: Sr. 12 Graduates June 9, 1950
.....     ..   ...     ........................

High School Course: Commercial    Home-Room Instructor: Miss Beck
...........     ...........

Previous Work Experience:

| Lerner's Vogue Store, clerk, | Feb. 1947 to June '49 | Miss M. Barrett |
|---|---|---|
| .......................... | ................... | ................ |
| Place | Date | Supervisor |

| Paul's Style Shop (clerk) | Summer '48 | Mr. Paul Greenwood |
|---|---|---|
| .......................... | .............. | .......................... |
| Place | Date | Supervisor |

| Younker-Davidson's (clerk) | Dec. '48 to present | Mr. Deaton |
|---|---|---|
| .......................... | .............. | .......................... |
| Place | Date | Supervisor |

Work Preferences: (1) Stenographer
.............................................

(2) Office Work
.............................................

(3)
.............................................

Signature ..............................
Mary Jane Doe (signed)

Instructor's remarks: (*Confidential*)
Four semesters of shorthand—speed of dictation, 120
Typing speed for straight copy, 55

Have had the following courses:
Bookkeeping I & II
Office Practice
Office Machines
Office Machines Used:
Ditto
Mimeograph
Dictaphone
Comptometer
Calculator
Adding Machine
Electric Machines

This young lady stands 21 in a class of 165 graduating seniors. Her attendance has been exceptional and we recommend her highly for any position for which she may apply.

(*Signed*) R. W. Lundak
Vocational Counselor

USE OTHER SIDE OF THIS CARD FOR ANY OTHER INFORMATION THAT IS PERTINENT OR REQUESTED BY EMPLOYER. RESULT OF INTERVIEW MAY BE RECORDED ON THIS SHEET IF DESIRED AND RETURNED.

In the large high school where the placement program is also concerned with students who have already left school, it is often impossible to reach students in person or by telephone. In these cases some form must be used to notify the student of employment opportunities. The accompanying post card form is appropriate for this purpose.

### JUNIOR EMPLOYMENT AND COUNSELING SERVICE WEST HIGH SCHOOL

We have been asked to recommend for the following jobs:

Kind of work........................................ Wage............

Company................................... Address............

Apply to..................................................at once.
<center>(always call for appointment)</center>

Please notify us if you are selected for this job. Call us if you are not interested in this job.

<center>Yours truly,</center>

Phone 9-2432  ...................................

Through the use of the cumulative records the placement counselor is able to assist the student in selecting a job which coincides with his interests, abilities, training, and experience. The job survey forms aid the counselor in collecting information about the job needs of the student, while the referral and employment form helps student-employer become acquainted. These latter records also help the placement counselor to determine the number of placements made. From this information an effective follow-up program can be initiated.

4. An efficient organization is essential for effective placement. In organizing the service someone in the school must be given the responsibility of operating it. Without such centralization of responsibility, only sporadic attempts at placement will be made; certainly, no systematic and continuous plan can be developed.[1] Although the counselor may be in charge of the placement program, any organizational plan should include all school personnel. Specialists in such subjects as shop and commerce are particularly helpful to the placement service. Through special classes or within regular classes, students need instruction concern-

[1] The individual who assumes the responsibility of placement will perform many duties. A job analysis of the work of the director of placement can be found in *Occupations* (October, 1951), part 2, pp. 11-13.

ing techniques in evaluating jobs, making job applications, and methods of finding jobs.

If a placement program is to be effective, the administration must provide such facilities as office space, files, and clerical help. It is also desirable that the person in charge of placement services have a private office free from distractions where employers may interview students.

5. A good relationship with community agencies is necessary for effective placement. Being in the most strategic position to accumulate highly significant information about the student, the schools should be willing to offer this information to placement interviewers in other community agencies. On the other hand, community agencies should also be willing to give the school information about job openings. The counselor should take every opportunity to coöperate with such community agencies as the Chamber of Commerce, labor unions, United States Employment Service, churches, YMCA, YWCA, and others who are concerned with the placement of youth. A friendly relationship can best be established when there is freedom of exchange in ideas and information. The placement officer should explain his program to these agencies, and attempt to learn of the services they render, in order that duplication of effort and manpower be kept to a minimum. Because coöperation among community and school agencies is imperative, the following paragraphs discuss a possible coöperative placement program:

## Coöperative Program Between School and Community Agencies [2]

Although the student is the greatest benefactor from placement service, the school and community will also profit by the increased effectiveness of human resources. However, a number of obstacles may prevent coöperative effort, and the counselor should be thoroughly familiar with these.

### OBSTACLES TO EFFECTIVE COÖPERATION

Of the obstacles to effective coöperation the following will be the most frequently encountered:

1. The reluctance of school personnel to become involved with people or agencies outside the well-defined school boundaries. While present placement services are inadequate, many school officials do not want community agencies to assume these functions.

[2] The authors are indebted to Dr. Bert D. Anderson, formerly Director of the Salt Lake City Youth Counseling and Placement Center, for many of the suggestions found in this section.

2. Some educators do not recognize that any successful placement program for youth depends upon their coöperation. They may give verbal consent to a community placement service but do not provide such an agency with vital information about the school leaver.

3. Some educators have not grasped the magnitude of the placement problem. This has resulted in neglect of their responsibility and misuse of manpower.

4. The community agency often fails to require special classification and training requirements for their vocational counselors. School personnel looks upon this with hesitancy and apprehension.

5. Frequently the coöperative center becomes a reservoir for all community problems and the high school graduate hesitates to use the service for fear that he will incur the stigma of being a community problem.

The above are but a sampling of the many obstacles that might be encountered in establishing a community placement program. In order to surmount these it may be necessary to consider the following steps: (1) A representative committee from all the facets of the community should determine the objectives of a placement program for youth. (2) The role of the respective agencies should then be defined. (3) *Techniques and methods for performing their respective functions* should be sought. (4) Periodic meetings must be scheduled by the committee to determine the effectiveness of the program and evaluate the extent to which each agency is making its proper contribution to the total program. Through a continuous evaluation by a central committee, the mechanics of operating a program can be established with more effective placement resulting.

AREAS OF COÖPERATION

In a preceding section we discussed the placement program in a school which had the sole responsibility for the placement of youth. Using the State Employment Service as an illustrative community agency, we shall be primarily concerned in this section with potential accessible resources with which the school can coöperate.

1. *Testing:* Where the school's testing program is incomplete, a coöperative program may be evolved with the state employment service to administer tests to its students. It is desirable that these tests be administered during the junior year so that the data can be used for counseling students in the school as well as for placement when the student leaves the school. The employment service should provide the school with the test results so that they may be placed in the student's cumulative record.

The school should assure the employment service that they will transfer to it the test results of those students who plan to leave school and enter the labor market on a permanent basis.

Where the school's testing program is adequate there is no need for the employment service to administer tests in the school; nevertheless, the school should send to the employment service the test results of students who desire to enter the labor market.

2. *Counseling:* When the student plans to enter the labor market in a relatively short time, a coöperative counseling service can be utilized. For example, it would be beneficial for the school to invite the employment service counselor to the school to talk to potential workers about: (1) kinds of jobs available, (2) where jobs are located, (3) salary of various jobs, (4) whether jobs are seasonal or permanent, (5) qualifications necessary to get jobs, and (6) duties of jobs. This specific information, which the employment service is in the best position to provide, is necessary for the student who plans to enter the labor market.

In order to know who is planning to enter the labor market, the school must survey all high school seniors to determine who will need help in job placement. This survey should be started at least six months prior to student's graduation. Whenever possible it is desirable to have this information from all students, because many desire part-time or seasonal work.

3. *Placement:* If all students are going to have the opportunity to contact potential employers, considerable coöperation is necessary. To insure maximum efficiency it is desirable to have a central place to which employers can send their job orders. Employers resent errands to several places in order to find and interview potential employees. A coöperative program might, therefore, use the employment service as a clearing house for information and orders. If this is done, the school should either get job-application data from each student who plans to enter the labor market or invite the employment service counselor to school to obtain this data. In addition to the application data the school should send to the employment service all vital information potentially useful in placing the student. After a student has been placed, the employment service should send back to the school information concerning the position. This provides the school with follow-up information.

4. *Job information:* The employment service can gather and disperse occupational information. It is highly desirable, for example, that the schools receive information concerning the type of jobs available, salary

for these jobs, specific duties, qualifications for jobs, and application procedures. A monthly labor bulletin to the schools will help in this respect. The Michigan State Employment Service loans schools and libraries information in booklets called "Occupational Guides *(30)*." These guides answer such questions as "What does a worker do?" "What wages can beginners and skilled workers expect?" "What training is needed and where can it be obtained?" "Where can an opening be found?" "What are the chances in this occupation?" and "Is this the right job for me?" They have found that such information has been used very effectively by the school counselor, and by teachers in regular classes.

5. *Records:* The functioning of a coöperative program demands a free interchange of information. A program to carry out a procedure of interchange should be developed in the initial stages.

The authors are not assuming that all placement will occur through a coöperative enterprise. Many school leavers will obtain jobs on their own initiative or by parental help. While initiative on the part of the student should be encouraged, a systematic approach is necessary if placement is to assume its proper role in the guidance program. The above suggestions might encourage coöperation between community agencies; other ways may be developed according to the need and local conditions. Such a program does not replace the guidance program; rather, it only supplements it, because placement is only one phase of the total guidance program.

BENEFITS OF A COÖPERATIVE PROGRAM

Several studies have indicated that the coöperation between the school and many community agencies has achieved better results than a program involving but one agency *(31, 13, 29)*. Follow-up data on job satisfaction, attitudes toward placement service, effectiveness of counseling, number placed, and testing were analyzed to determine the benefits of the program. According to these studies, a carefully planned follow-up program will reveal numerous inefficiencies which, if corrected, will result ultimately in a more effective placement program.

*Techniques for Helping Students Select and Obtain a Job*

While it is enlightening to know one's real qualifications for a job, it is equally important to know the proper procedure for obtaining a job. Success depends in great measure upon the individual's initiative and

approach. It is the responsibility of the school to assist the student to acquire the techniques of evaluating and securing a job. Instruction for this purpose may be given in counseling or through regular or special classes. Appropriate topics for consideration are: (1) factors in evaluating a job, (2) techniques in applying for a job, and (3) techniques in holding a job.

## EVALUATING THE JOB

It is as important for the student to evaluate the prospective position as for the employer to evaluate the student. If the student is careful to analyze the numerous factors involved in job selection, he is more likely to select a job that will fit his interests, experience, and abilities. The following factors should be evaluated before accepting a job (8):

1. The opening—the student should investigate the reasons for the job being open. Information from such a study may give many valuable clues about the job.
2. The job—the student should have specific knowledge of what he would be doing in the job. While a general description is desirable, specific details are essential.
3. The requirements—a knowledge of the experience, skills, and information that the job requires should be ascertained.
4. The company—answers to questions concerning the reputation of the company, financial standing, newness or well established, etc., should be sought.
5. The place—knowledge of the physical conditions required in the job, and whether moving to a new community will be necessary.
6. The people—consideration should be given to the type of associates, including the employer, and your superiors.
7. The pay—while the basic salary is important, attention should also be granted to such items as commissions, bonuses, health and hospitalization insurance, life insurance, pensions, and employee discounts.
8. The future—the opportunity for advancement and the methods for promotion should be determined.
9. The off hours—each individual should consider how the job will influence his private life. Consideration should be given to company rules that affect the social and civic activities of the individual.

After the student has studied these nine points he should weigh the advantages and disadvantages of the job for him. An excellent method for rating the job is suggested in the *Kiplinger Magazine*. It advocates the use of the rating chart shown on page 413.

| ITEMS TO BE SCORED | THE JOB | FOR A COMPARISON |
|---|---|---|
| | Do you feel that on this point the job you are considering is: Outstanding? Satisfactory? Below Par? | Compared with your present job or another opening, is this one: Better? About the same? Not So Good? |

1. Duties. (Clear as to what they are? You have the right experience?)

2. Interest. (Going to enjoy the work?)

3. Associates. (People you'll like to know and can work well with?)

4. Supervision. (The immediate boss seems to know his stuff? Strike you as a good man to work for?)

5. Work conditions. (Hours, equipment, physical plant, transportation, etc., all okay?)

6. Income. (Take home pay right? Now and future?)

7. Benefits. (How about vacations, sick leave, pensions, insurance, other "fringe" stuff?)

8. Satisfaction. (Consider this useful, worthwhile work?)

9. Experience. (Helpful to your career, long run? Will job add to or broaden your work experience?)

| ITEMS TO BE SCORED | THE JOB | FOR A COMPARISON |
|---|---|---|
| | Do you feel that on this point the job you are considering is: Outstanding? Satisfactory? Below Par? | Compared with your present job or another opening, is this one: Better? About the same? Not So Good? |

10. Advancement. (Chances good? Lead to the right higher jobs?)

11. Prestige. (Proud to have people know you work at this job?)

12. Stability. (Company reputable, sound, and prosperous?)

13. Growth. (Company's future as promising as its past? Alert, expanding?)

14. Personal. (Would it change your private life—hobbies, etc.?)

15. Family. (Do they approve? Would they be affected?)

TECHNIQUES IN APPLYING FOR A JOB

An individual may apply for a job through a letter of application or a personal interview. In a written application the student should remember the following suggestions (*34*):

1. The letter of application should include some of the following facts:
    a. The position or the kind of work interested in.
    b. Age.
    c. Qualifications for job.
    d. Experience in this type of work.
    e. Names and addresses of references.

2. The method of presenting the material is important. The applicant should write in a businesslike manner, directly to the point, and use proper and correct grammar.
3. Care should be given to such details as:
   a. Writing letter on plain white paper.
   b. Writing only on one side of the paper.
   c. Using pen and ink or typewriting the letter.
   d. Having letter free of corrections, erasures, etc.

The letter of application should give the employer such a description of yourself that he will be interested in seeing you. As it leads to a personal interview it is important to use great care in preparing the application.

In appearing for a personal interview the applicant should keep in mind those factors which a prospective employer will observe. Personal characteristics may often be noticed and checked as discriminately as qualifications and experience. The student should note the following characteristics that will be observed by the employer:

1. Do you appear neat and well attired?
2. Is your apparel subdued and in good taste?
3. Do your face and hands bear evidence of meticulous care?
4. Is your diction correct, moderate, and ingratiating?
5. Are you enthusiastic, attentive, and respectful?
6. Are you calm and confident?
7. Have you developed the charm of a gracious smile and a pleasant manner of approach?

While some of these suggestions may seem foolish to some students, they are very important for making a good impression on prospective employers.

TECHNIQUES FOR HOLDING A JOB

Although it is very important to the student to know proper procedures for getting a job, it is equally important to know about some of the factors in holding a position. Too little consideration is granted this topic, and many people connected with placement feel that their responsibility is finished when the student has been employed. Because of the high percentage of job turnovers due to factors other than lack of ability, there must have been neglect in selecting the right job or instructing students in methods for holding the job. Some of the factors involved in holding a job are (34:63):

1. Be considerate and appreciate the problems of the boss.
2. Do not quarrel with fellow employees.
3. Be punctual.
4. Be friendly with fellow workers.
5. Be willing to follow directions and give suggestions when asked for.
6. Do not criticize and complain about the faults of others.
7. Assume your responsibility and do not expect someone else to carry you along.
8. When you have a "gripe" go to your boss rather than to a fellow worker.

The above suggestions are primarily concerned with human relations between individuals. If the guidance program has been effective in developing the total individual, many of the human relations problems will be minimized.

## SUMMARY

The guidance program has often been defined in terms of the services it provides. Included within the program is the placement service without which the guidance program would be incomplete. The determination of the responsibility for the placement service for school youth is debatable. One group of authorities feel that placement is a definite concern of the school while others feel it is not a responsibility of the school at all. There are many variations of these points of view, but the writers feel that the schools do have an inescapable responsibility to see that every student has the opportunity for placement service. The size of the high school, availability of state and public employment agencies, and number of school personnel available are a few of the factors that will determine the extent to which the school will engage in actual placement procedures.

For the present discussion, placement was referred to as the assistance given to students by placing them in a job. Apparently three main groups benefit from the placement service: (1) employer, (2) school, and (3) student.

The placement service of a school may be organized according to several patterns. First, we may have a decentralized pattern in which each department is responsible for placement; second, we may find a centralized office responsible for placement; and third, we may have a combination of the decentralized and centralized plans. Regardless of the organizational pattern, the placement program should have the fol-

lowing essential elements: (1) significant information about the student, (2) information about job openings, (3) an adequate system of records, (4) an efficient organization, and (5) good relationships with community agencies.

Although the student is the greatest benefactor from placement service, the school and community will also profit by the increased effectiveness of human resources. Studies have indicated that the coöperation between the school and many community agencies has achieved better results than a program involving but one agency. A number of obstacles may prevent coöperative effort. In order to surmount these obstacles, it may be necessary to consider the following steps: (1) a representative committee from all the facets of the community should determine the objectives of a placement program for youth; (2) the roles of the respective agencies should then be defined; (3) techniques and methods for performing their respective functions should be sought; and (4) periodic meetings must be scheduled by the committee to determine the effectiveness of the program and to evaluate the extent to which each agency is making its contribution to the total program. Resources which can be coöperatively used by the school and community agency are testing, counseling, job orders, job information, and records.

While it is enlightening to know one's real qualifications for a job, it is equally important to know the proper procedure for obtaining a job. Instruction for this purpose may be given in counseling or through regular or special classes. Appropriate topics for consideration are: (1) factors in evaluating a job, (2) techniques in applying for a job, and (3) techniques in holding a job.

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PART IV

TECHNIQUES OF GROUP GUIDANCE

# Guiding the Pupil in the Learning Process

PERSONAL AND SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT MUST BE LEARNED

IN THIS section we shall be especially concerned with the learning of prejudices, preferences, beliefs, social attitudes, ideals, and values. It will include a consideration of those dynamic forces which emerge from the individual himself—his purposes, desires, and needs as well as those forces which evolve from the social interplay with other persons. These types of learning involve needs, interests, attitudes, beliefs, values and emotions—all closely integrated with good or bad personal-social adjustment. The writers believe that the acquisition of reading or arithmetic skills, for example, cannot be acquired apart from the emotional aspects of the personality. It is in the field of learning, then, that guidance is most closely integrated with instruction. Under ideal conditions the dividing line between guidance and teaching is so fine that the word "guidance" may be dropped from education entirely. Unfortunately the ideal is never attained.

Instruction and guidance are inseparable functions in the classroom; subject-matter mastery should never be the sole objective. How much pupils learn is less important than how they learn and how they feel.

Guidance should not be limited to diagnostic and remedial treatment in academic or personality difficulties although these aspects may well be included. The teacher must observe the beginnings of emotional, educational, and social frustrations before patterns of antisocial behavior become fixed. Whether it be education or guidance, the teacher must

always render assistance to the development of wholesome individuals and foster harmonious adjustment to self and group welfare.

## GROUP-STIMULATED LEARNING

This chapter, entitled "Guiding the Pupil in the Learning Process," is discussed under the general area of "Techniques of Group Guidance," because of the common stereotype of the classroom as a unit of group instruction. We are interested in discussing the various understandings, attitudes, and skills that teachers should possess in order to help the whole pupil develop to the optimum of his ability. The guidance program should aid the teacher in giving continuity to their undertaking. We shall emphasize certain administrative and instructional aspects of the school as assisting or obstructing pupil adjustment. Because of this emphasis many guidance specialists would not call this guidance at all. Nevertheless, the writers regard the subsequent content so closely integrated with the well-being of school children that the subject of learning cannot be omitted in a discussion of guidance in the schools.

## AN OPTIMUM LEARNING ATMOSPHERE REQUIRES AN UNDERSTANDING OF NEEDS

When a pupil needs something we assume that he is in a state of disequilibrium and that this condition directs the course of his behavior. He behaves in a fashion leading to the relief of tensions that come from imbalance. When the child's needs and purposes are satisfied by behavior acceptable to himself and to the social world in which he lives we say he is well adjusted. When he fails to live up to expectancies of self, family, play group, classroom group, or the larger community then he is likely to be tense, anxious, and feel guilty. These are symptoms of maladjustment.

The needs of the individual result from the structure of his organism, the processes of society, and the nature of his experiences. Behavior which in the past has brought some measure of success is likely to be repeated by a child in need. The task of guidance is to assist the individual to integrate his own needs and purposes with the purposes of the social world in which he lives.

There is universal agreement that each individual has two general classes of needs: (1) the primary basic tissue needs such as hunger, thirst, muscular activity, etc.; and (2) acquired—social or personality—needs such as affection, belongingness, achievement, etc. It is an interest-

ing question whether or not the acquired motives rest upon and derive their energy from basic tissue needs. Nevertheless, a need is strong when it will cause the individual to act—whatever its origin. There is no standard classification of needs, and the lists vary greatly in length from author to author according to convenience. The threefold classification by Prescott (22) illustrates such a convenience and are listed as: physiological, social, and ego or integrative. Typical of the physiological needs are food, thirst, sex, rest, elimination, adjustment to temperature. Illustrative of the social needs are feelings of belongingness, need for affection, need for achievement, need for recognition, need for security.

Ego-integrative needs presuppose that the child needs some internal organization within his person in order that he may achieve a sense of inner harmony. A philosophy of life, religion, a set of values—all play a role in the satisfaction of these needs. Ego needs are intimately concerned with the individual's need to believe in himself and have self-respect. They grow out of a person's pattern of values and are achieved to the extent that the individual measures up to his own level of aspiration. One essential requirement is freedom to make one's own decisions or to hold a personal belief or value.

The adjustment of an individual to the satisfaction of a need may either be adequate or inadequate depending upon the extent that tension and frustrations are reduced. The common methods of tension reduction are usually termed mechanisms of behavior, and the most common of these may be listed as: attempts to remove the obstacle by aggression, inhibition, compromise, substitution or sublimation; compensation; rationalization; formation of logic-tight compartments; regression, such as withdrawal and daydreaming; identification; and projection. There is no standard classification of these mechanisms and the terms above are by no means all-inclusive.

When opportunities for the normal kind of satisfactions are not present, the child will seek satisfactions in a substitute form. Many favorable pressures in the life of an individual contribute to poor adjustment. Some of the most common of these are: poverty, the family circle and its tendency to favor or reject, overprotection, broken homes, expectations toward inordinately high moral standards, methods of child training, physical conditions of the body, community life including recreational opportunity, school life including unsuitable curriculum, overcompetition, lack of provision for individual differences, poor grouping of pupils, and poor teacher-pupil relationships.

*Examples of Personal-Social Needs*

THE NEED TO BELONG

Normal living requires participation in group life, an affiliation of one's self with other people. The family group and school group provide a segment of society in which this need may be satisfied. In the case of one boy, for example, we may observe an individual who is anxious to sit by others, who takes part in group discussions, who likes class trips. On the other hand, we may cite the case of another boy who lowers his head each time the teacher looks his way, who makes no effort to sit near anyone, who keeps quiet, and answers all questions directed to him with a "yes," "no," or "I don't know."

It is well to recognize the difficulty of satisfying the need to belong when parents over-protect a child in an attempt to make him feel secure. An over-protected child can seldom arrive at a realistic understanding of himself. He is unable to work independently or with others because of lack of self-confidence. Frequently he has difficulty in school because he lacks initiative to attack new problems. In the reading process, for example, he may become belligerent toward the teacher and his peers or he may retire into a dream world where no one has to learn to read.

Closely related to the need of belonging is a feeling of security. Every pupil needs some person who stands as a symbol of security. This person can be the parent, the teacher, the counselor, or the clergyman. For the teacher or counselor there remains the task of knowing the child so well that he can react according to the child's expectations. The child from a rigid and authoritarian home may be made uneasy by non-directive consideration. Likewise, a child from a laissez-faire home atmosphere may rebel under the restraints of an authoritarian teacher. Too often teachers have been shocked or disturbed by unconventional ways of pupil behavior which could be easily traced to meager family income, poor housing, inadequate parental training, or poor use of leisure time. Adults may unwittingly frustrate the natural demands of children by restrictions and punishment. As a result a conflict begins within the child. He needs the love and affection that goes with conforming, but he also needs the strength that goes with fighting back against adults who seem unfair.

## THE NEED TO BE APPROVED

Gaining the approval of parents, teachers, or peers accounts for much of the behavior of children. Retarded children are usually hampered by worry, fears, and an anxiety of not being approved by other people. Frustration clues may lie in such behavior as drumming on the table, lip-biting, fingernail biting, twisting, stammering, short attention span, sensitiveness to suggestion, and being subject to fatigue and insomnia. For some children, worry over threatened status and fear of not being accepted at their own estimation of their worth may lead to antagonistic attitudes in verbal defense and rationalization.

## THE NEED FOR ADEQUACY OR SELF-ASSURANCE

From daily contacts with others the pupil may regard himself as self-sufficient depending largely upon the responses he gets toward his behavior. Feelings of inadequacy may be described as arising from three sources: (1) physical handicaps, (2) intellectual capacity, and (3) social interaction.

Self-assurance is bolstered by feelings of achievement. For example, no child at any time should be made to feel incompetent in learning to read. Even though he may lack the ability to read as effectively as his classmates, he should experience a sense of satisfactory accomplishment at his own reading level. To give him success the teacher must provide reading material that is appropriate to his abilities.

## THE NEED OF AMBIVALENCE

One of the less commonly listed and less commonly recognized needs of the child is the attitude of approach and avoidance, acceptance and rejection, love and hate toward the same object. This combination of positive and negative attitudes is known as ambivalence. Although ambivalence is observable at all ages it is strikingly illustrated during early adolescence when the child wants to be independent yet still needs the security of parents on whom he can depend. He wishes to dominate, yet desires someone to whom he can submit. If children are assisted in discovering their own ambivalence it relieves the feelings of guilt. It is also helpful for parents and teachers to recognize this need because unusual and bizarre behavior in many cases may be regarded as the satisfaction of a need.

By way of summary we may say that a consideration of needs and adjustive behavior leads us to realize that the roots of many learning problems stem from emotional, social, or physical immaturity. Learning evolves because of the dynamic and constantly changing organism in its attempt to attain balance. Whenever the equilibrium of the organism is disturbed by emotional, physical, or social handicaps, learning efficiency may be greatly reduced.

Of the many needs demanded by the individual we may use for an example the sense of security which must be established by home and school. In the classroom the child who feels he is not liked by the teacher or his classmates cannot concentrate on learning. The major portion of his attention and energy is likely to be focused on how to relieve the tension caused by emotional disturbance. Difficulty in learning may lead to fear which further inhibits concentration and perseverance. Lack of self-confidence develops from failure; continuous failure broods expectation of further failure. Recognition and acceptance are basic; both can be cultivated if the pupil has the opportunity to contribute to group enterprises. Above all, the child must be accepted by the immediate society of which he is a member, but in addition he must accept himself.

Finally we may say that a child's behavior is good or bad to the extent that it is accepted by himself, his peers, parents, or teachers. Behavior is often regarded as undesirable merely because it does not coincide with what the teacher as an educator considers exemplary. A problem child is a problem only when a basic need has been satisfied by an undesirable mechanism of behavior.

## GUIDANCE IN LEARNING DEMANDS A RECOGNITION OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Democracy has a profound respect for the individual man and provides freedom for the development of individual capacities and traits. Because of these individual capacities, traits, and desires, democracy also provides opportunities to learn to share, to coöperate, and to participate. Diversity gives strength and stability to a social group whether it be a democratic nation or a democratic classroom.

Mankind has always recognized differences among fellows although it has not agreed as to the causes of these differences. During the last twenty years scientific interest in individual differences, which began with the work of Galton and Cattell, has grown until it can be designated as a field of psychology in its own right. Experimental difficulties

have made psychologists hesitant to study the complexity of forces which determine the variations among children. The evidence which we do have appears to be demonstrable in objective facts relating to isolated bits of human behavior. Concurrently, we can safely generalize that the causes of differences do not rest upon hereditary bases alone, because nutrition, endocrine balance, habit, culture, and social experience are influential. Differences are the result of constitutional, psychological, and cultural backgrounds.

Guidance of learning situations must be considered in the light of children's general characteristics and special requirements. Each pupil should be given opportunity to develop his unique talents to the fullest. These objectives are impossible to achieve unless effort is made to gather information about how the particular child differs from other children. A demonstrable illustration can readily be taken from the teaching of reading:

### THE CASE OF JOHN

John is a boy, fifteen years of age, who reads very poorly. In addition to his language handicap he is inattentive, appears to be tired and sleepy, and responds to his name only after the teacher shouts it. A test of vision indicates some myopic difficulty, but an ophthalmologist does not believe that a correction is needed. His eye dominance is completely right, although he does some things with his left hand.

Since the beginning of his school career at six years of age he has attended ten different schools in overcrowded classrooms. He has no ability to read in phrases, uses his lips when reading silently, and points with his fingers continuously. The results of an individual intelligence test show his IQ is 78.

The Spanish language is spoken in his home, the family's economic status is below average, and although his parents are practically illiterate he has an older brother who reads English tolerably well. He is shy, unresponsive, and apparently fearful of speaking in the group situation.

Here we have the case of a pupil who must be recognized as different from the average schoolboy in physical, pyschological, economical, and emotional characteristics. If he is to profit from school attendance, classroom procedures must be highly individualized. Background experiences must be built up, books and other reading materials on his particular reading level must be provided, and praise must be given for good performance.

Apparently this child needs a hearing aid and a seat near the teacher

By way of summary we may say that a consideration of needs and adjustive behavior leads us to realize that the roots of many learning problems stem from emotional, social, or physical immaturity. Learning evolves because of the dynamic and constantly changing organism in its attempt to attain balance. Whenever the equilibrium of the organism is disturbed by emotional, physical, or social handicaps, learning efficiency may be greatly reduced.

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Apparently this child needs a hearing aid and a seat near the teacher

so she can be heard. Special training in speech will also have to be given. In this instance it will be difficult to conclude whether emotional disturbances are due to home conditions or whether actual failure is retarding normal progress. At any rate this boy cannot profit from instruction directed to the average child.

Surveys of the capacities of pupils in grades eleven to fourteen inclusive indicate that an exceptionally wide range of abilities must be expected. In one study it was reported that scores made by 5270 eleventh-grade students on the American Council Psychological Examination ranged from a minimum of 15 points to a maximum of 180 points. In grade twelve the range from 5266 pupils was from 10 points to 180 points. Another survey showed a range of 10 to 169 in over a thousand college freshmen (*11*).

In general, the grade scores of pupils in any subject in high schools vary over a range of eight or more grades. In a survey in Chicago schools of several thousand ninth grade pupils, the scores varied from the second grade to the fourteenth. Nineteen percent were retarded from one-half to two years, 9 percent from two to three years, 6 percent from three to four years, and 4 percent from four to seven years (*11*).

Individual differences other than hereditary factors are the product of a wide variety of factors or conditions such as irregularity in attendance, frequent school transfers, inadequate or ineffective teaching, and lack of rapport between teacher and pupils. Provision for these individual differences requires carefully planned instruction and guidance adjusted to specific needs.

### *The Problem of Grouping to Facilitate Learning*

The grouping of school children has traditionally been a problem of school administration. Graded schools had been in existence in the United States for well over a hundred years when the system was inaugurated by such educators as Horace Mann and Henry Barnard. The familiar pattern requires that children start school in grade one at the age of 6; then, after memorizing the contents of the first-grade reader, speller, and number book they are rewarded by promotion at the end of the year to grade two. With a promotion at the end of each year, children receive a diploma from the eighth grade and are permitted to enter high school. One of the traditional objectives of our school system has been to make all pupils alike. At the end of a given school year those who were judged to have become sufficiently alike in the respect of acquiring

subject matter were promoted; and the unfortunate pupil who could not conform was retained until he could become like the others.

## Proposed Plans of Grouping to Avoid Hazards of the Graded System

The proposed plans and practices to prevent the ill effects of traditional grade systems include semiannual, quarterly, subject, and special promotions. Other proposals have been holding standards constant and increasing instruction for slow pupils by giving the regular teacher an assistant, by establishing opportunity rooms, by providing special remedial teachers, and by establishing vocation schools for the retarded. The dual and multi-tracked curriculum for the fast, medium, and slow learners has also been tried with pupils of the same chronological age in one group, or with separate classification of pupils into slow, medium, and fast learner groups.

In the most popular of the promotion schemes, semiannual promotion, overageness is often more pronounced because teachers have less hesitation in holding pupils back. This increases social maladjustment and is even more detrimental than the practice of acceleration by "grade skipping."

The graded school system and the non-promotion system have caused a barrage of negative experimental evidence. It has been experimentally shown, for example, that pupils who repeat grades do little if any better the year they repeat a grade than they do the first year therein (33). Furthermore, the school with a low retardation rate is significantly higher in the achievement level of most subjects than is the school that tends to retain the low-ability pupils. Schools with strict promotion policies retain the slow-learning pupils from one to five years longer, causing a consequent excess of retarded pupils in all classes and accordingly an increase in the range of achievement, especially in the upper grades (6).

## Homogeneous Grouping

All of the techniques of grouping cited in preceding paragraphs illustrate attempts to group children homogeneously. When children are admitted to the first grade at 6 years of age it is assumed that upon normal promotion they will be grouped homogeneously throughout their school career. That this assumption is not valid is proved by many investigations. Tiegs (28), for example, showed that in a single group of twenty-five pupils who were identical in IQ, M.A., and C.A., average variations of three to five or more grades were present. The great varia-

tion in physical maturational patterns of children indicates that the chronological age, mental age, and any other age are only loosely correlated. Homogeneous grouping will reduce heterogeneity only about 20 percent because trait differences for each individual may vary as much as 80 percent between individuals in the same class (3).

## Techniques for Adjusting the Curriculum to Individual Needs

Techniques, old and new, for adjusting the curriculum to individual needs are closely associated with administrative procedures of grouping pupils. In addition to these procedures, however, we have traditional and modern overall designs of curriculum to meet common needs. Several of these designs will be discussed in some detail in the following pages.

### LOGICALLY-ORGANIZED SUBJECTS INDEPENDENTLY TAUGHT

The traditional plan of curriculum design most frequent in the United States (34) is a core of logically-organized subjects or fields of knowledge each of which is taught independently without any systematic attempt to show relationships. A modification of this independently taught plan is a correlation of the logically-organized subjects. For example, when the history teacher is dealing with the Civil War, the English teacher introduces the literature of that period. A more systematic type of correlation is found in the selection of broad problems, units of work, or unifying themes chosen because they afford the means of teaching effectively the basic content of certain subjects or fields of knowledge. The subjects retain their identity but little concern is given to logical organization. The weaknesses of a separate-subject program have been recognized for many years. At first the criticism was directed toward a so-called "lock-step" system where pupils were expected to master a system of knowledge before being promoted to the next grade. Examples of plans to care for individual differences are described below.

### THE BATAVIA, PUEBLO, AND CAMBRIDGE PLANS

The Batavia plan, first described in 1914 (21), featured classes of fifty children or less which were provided with two teachers whose work was proportioned to one-half class work and one-half supervised study. Recitation and supervised study were in simultaneous process. A decrease in the amount of class recitation work and an increase in the amount of pupil assistance and directed study were the essential features of the plan.

The Pueblo plan provided for small classes and small groups within classes. For example, a class of forty pupils could be grouped into five groups progressing at five different rates of speed. Pupils were permitted to pass from one group to another as their progress or lack of progress indicated was desirable. Theoretically, this plan made provision for the slow, the average, and the gifted pupil, as well as all the descriptive gradations. Currently, we find this plan in frequent use in the elementary grades in the instruction of such subjects as reading and arithmetic.

The multiple-track plans designed primarily to care for two or more groups of varying ability may be found in our school systems today. A well-known illustration is that of the Cambridge plan providing for two parallel courses of instruction, one a basal eight-year course; the other a parallel course intended specifically for the gifted pupil, making it possible for him to cover the eight years of elementary school in six years. A three-track plan would advance all normal pupils evenly during the first six years, and then, by a differentiation of courses and promotion by subjects after the sixth year a pupil may advance as rapidly as he is able. Promotion is by subjects in the last two years of the usual grammar-school course. In most cases it has been found necessary to differentiate subject matter and teaching methods for the different groups.

### THE DALTON AND WINNETKA PLANS

Other programs designed to meet individual needs have eliminated class organization and subject boundaries. Two types of plans which erase class organization are the Dalton and the Winnetka plan. The Dalton plan uses the regular curriculum materials and textbooks but permits the pupil to work in his own way. The curriculum for the year is divided by subjects into as many units as there are months in the school year. Each unit is further subdivided into twenty units. Work-sheets are provided for each sub-unit to show what is to be done and directions are given on how to proceed. The day begins with a short organization period of from 15 to 30 minutes, followed by a laboratory period of from 2 to 3 hours. A conference period of from 30 to 40 minutes ends the work day. Pupils spend the time they need in a laboratory or workshop designed for the subject. A pupil may complete all his work in each subject day by day, or he may work continuously on one subject until it is finished and then begin a new subject. Progress of each pupil is measured and recorded on a "job card." All units for the month must be completed at the month's end.

The Winnetka individual system divides the curriculum into two parts. One part deals with commonly needed knowledges and skills, and the other part provides for group activities and self-expression subjects. The day is divided into four parts, and half of both morning and afternoon is given to each phase of the instruction. Knowledge and skill are acquired under individual instruction, and in this work all grade lines are eliminated. Each pupil checks his progress on a worksheet as he goes along and he passes to more advanced work only after 100 percent perfection. The teacher spends her entire time in supervising study and in teaching individual pupils. In the group-activity part of the curriculum there are no definite goals, no tests, and pupil activities are so numerous and varied that individual talents are given opportunity for expression. In contrast to the Dalton plan no definite time limits are imposed.

In both of these plans we note a close following of a rigid curriculum with emphasis placed on material of instruction. At least half of the Winnetka plan is fixed. Fortunately, socialization and self-expression counteracts the assumption that childhood is a time primarily for the storing up of knowledge for adult life.

## Departures from Conventional Designs

A significant departure from the conventional design of general education is the fusion concept of the core curriculum. Here separate subjects tend to lose their identity and a larger block of time is required. Although a complete break is not made with the organized subject-matter tradition, there is an attempt to make subject matter more meaningful. All individuals growing up in our culture are assumed to need certain essential bodies of content in English, social studies, and science. Usually one subject or field serves as the unifying center.

A program of general education deviating radically from subject cores is a curriculum consisting of broad, preplanned problem areas, from which are selected learning experiences in terms of psychological, biological, and social needs, problems, and interests of youth. It is designed to attack the common problems which youth in our society face. It is based on the tenet that the school should assist youth to identify and meet their common needs. Subject matter from all pertinent fields of knowledge is used to clarify persistent common problems of living and to provide data for solving them. Little attention is given to subject matter which does not appear needed in achieving chosen goals. From one-third to two-thirds of the school day is set aside for this part of the

curriculum, and the remaining time is allotted to the pursuit of the student's special-interest areas. As adopted in the schools, the practical aspect of this curriculum requires mathematics and physical education in addition to broad comprehensive problems of living. These problem areas provide the scope of the curriculum for meeting the common needs of youth. Scope and sequence are determined by the faculty but the specific units are selected, planned, and carried out coöperatively by the teacher and students. A block of two or three periods per day is set aside for the core of the curriculum; and for the remainder of the day students elect courses in the fine and practical arts, advanced science, mathematics, vocational subjects, foreign languages, and other special-interest areas.

### THE TEACHER-STUDENT PLANNED CURRICULUM

An even more liberal form of the core curriculum design is one in which teacher and pupils plan broad units of work in terms of needs as perceived by the group. Problem areas actually determine all of the learning units developed in the classroom and are not only selected by teacher and pupils but the choice of learning activities is also made by them. The method of determining problems, goals, and ways of working is more important than the actual subject matter that constitutes the program. What has been undertaken at each grade level during the course of the year is carefully recorded. Currently, such a program is more frequently found in elementary than secondary schools. The plan recognizes the dynamic character of the learner and the learning process; it provides for teacher and student initiative; and it facilitates the democratic process in the classroom.

### HOW THE TEACHER-STUDENT PLANNED CORE CURRICULUM PROVIDES FOR STUDENT NEEDS

The teacher-student planned core curriculum provides an opportunity for a direct attack upon the needs of youth. No other design has so much potential strength in the development of the attitudes, understandings, and basic skills needed by all students to make them effective citizens in a democratic culture. Common problems are identified and studied, and solutions are reached through individual and group thinking. Appropriate subject matter is chosen only when it helps solve problems; thus the so-called *fundamentals* are learned functionally.

By means of such a curriculum the cleavage between education and

guidance becomes much narrower. Activities formerly described as home-room or extracurricular become an integral part of the educative process. The class barriers so frequently encountered in the traditional program are removed. Individual differences in abilities, rates of learning, talents, and interests are provided for in the wide variety of activities formed in the units of work. Special interests, for example, are cultivated to the point where laboratories and studios and specialized instruction are needed. The teacher and all the pupils from various social and economic levels work together in the solution of common problems. This means that democratic practices in the classroom inculcate democratic ideals and values.

Based upon an atomistic approach to learning, traditional instruction is replaced by an organismic approach which attacks vital problems of living. The community is frequently used as the learning laboratory. Common problems of pupils grow out of the interaction of the student and his immediate and wider environment.

The teaching staff must plan and work together; each teacher has a contribution to make and a task of working with groups as well as with individual pupils. Student loads are reduced because students remain in the same group for a longer block of time.

Because teachers have fewer pupils for a longer period of time they learn to know students more intimately and hence to guide them more effectively (1).

## Adjustment of Curriculum to the Exceptional Student

The definition of the term "exceptional" as given by the Yearbook Committee of the National Association for the Study of Education in 1950 (12) is accepted in this textbook, i.e., the exceptional child is he who differs so markedly in physical, mental, emotional, or social traits that he needs special educational services. At this time, however, we shall include only three types of exceptional pupils; furthermore, only those who do not deviate to the point where clinical, psychological, psychiatric, or medical treatment is extensively required. The three types to be considered are (1) the slow-learning child, (2) the gifted child, (3) the child with certain special academic and emotional disabilities. Providing optimum learning conditions for these children requires adherence to certain basic principles listed below:

*Exceptional children are basically like other children:* An exceptional child has all the needs, desires, and physical energy of children in gen-

eral but because of a specific exceptional condition he requires an adjustment or special service in his educational program. These children need emphasis on the individualization of classroom work.

*Diagnostic services are provided:* Before a child can be considered exceptional he must be given an adequate diagnosis by means of tests in four major areas: (1) educational achievement, (2) psychological, (3) physical and sensory, and (4) emotional and personality. Most of these tests must be administered by specifically trained personnel; certainly interpretation must be made with the aid of a specialist.

· *Instruction in or out of class is dependent upon maximum benefit:* Instruction may require a limited period of extra and special help outside the regular classroom but most of the time the exceptional child will be with the normal group. Ideally, the child should be a part of the regular class with special services brought to him when necessary. If his enrollment in the regular class is detrimental to his own development or to that of other children, then he should be placed in a special environment.

*The major emphasis in the school should be on prevention, not correction:* The principal function of the classroom teacher should be one of prevention and detection rather than correction. In other words, the teacher should minimize school hazards to mental and physical health, i.e., prevent handicaps and personality maladjustments.

### Special Attention to the Slow-Learning Child

The slow learner may be described in terms of IQ or in terms of disabilities. In terms of intelligence the slow learner has an IQ somewhere between 79 and 90; that is, he may be somewhere between the average and the mentally defective pupil. In terms of specific disabilities, he may have difficulty in *thinking abstractly* or in *handling symbolic material*. Socially, he may indicate a definite immaturity by his non-acceptance of personal and social responsibilities. Physically, he may be defective in the visual or auditory sense. All carefully taken into account are causes of functional slowness, such as ill health, emotional disturbance, poor home and other environmental conditions, and lack of experience.

Adjustment of the curriculum to the slow-learning child must be preceded by thorough physical examination followed by a program for possible correction. This is to be accompanied by expert intelligence testing and interpretation of results. The next attack should be upon un·

favorable environmental situations which may contribute to the condition. Broken homes and other unfavorable environmental influences are factors which may interfere with social adjustment. Slow learners require short and simple methods of instruction based upon concrete experiences with concrete materials. Teachers of the slow-learning child quickly find the value of audio-visual materials such as the excursion, dramatization, the museum, construction experiences, and still and motion pictures. The slow learner also needs more practice and drill to retain what he has learned than does the brighter child.

Much caution should be taken in selecting exclusively those methods requiring drill and repetition for the slow learner. He will absorb only that which he understands, little though that may be. Particularly detrimental has been the custom of using workbooks and mimeographed materials as the basis of remedial work. Slow learners should be given every opportunity to participate in school assemblies, school publications, safety patrols, campaigns, and intramural games and sports. Because most slow learners have reading disabilities they should be given many opportunities to augment their learning opportunities and encouraged to view television and motion pictures, listen to the radio, and to participate in discussion—all under careful supervision.

### GUIDANCE IN THE ACTIVITIES OF SLOW LEARNERS

School activities for the slow learner should be chosen largely as they relate to out-of-school life. First-hand contact with the world through field trips, exhibits, interviews, or guest lectures is essential. Introduce them to people of the community, e.g., the policeman, the postman, the fireman, the aviator, or the pioneer. Community clean-up campaigns, beautification, improvement projects, and safety campaigns have excellent potential educational value for the slow learner. The so-called fundamental skills in reading, arithmetic, writing, and spelling should be held in subordination to learning how to get along with other people and to learning a trade. Slow learners can be taught to read but they cannot be expected to read as well as the average pupil. Reading, writing, and arithmetic should always be closely related to curriculum activities growing out of the natural interests of the child.

### Special Attention to the Gifted Child

A gifted child may possess a high level of general intelligence as measured by traditional tests or he may have special abilities which are

not necessarily associated with a high intelligence quotient. Many variable factors enter into a definition of the gifted child. Giftedness may be found anywhere and manifest itself in many forms during the life of an individual. The factors involved in the identification of the gifted include physical, intellectual, emotional, and social—none of which should be considered in isolation. The superior child has all the fundamental needs of childhood: comfort, affection, exercise, play, security, self-respect, and the right to mature unhampered by fears, pressures, or exploitation. The typical gifted child is superior not only in intelligence but in school achievement, versatility, character traits, play information, social adjustment, and physique (27).

The intellectually gifted child thinks differently from other children in that he displays more intellectual curiosity, develops concepts more rapidly, and displays more agility with symbols and other abstractions. He becomes quickly dissatisfied with the routine of usual classroom work and must find other means of satisfying his needs. Often he becomes impatient and intolerant of the less capable, and frequently seeks the companionship of older children because their thinking and interests are more mature.

#### PROVIDING FOR THE EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF THE GIFTED

The traditional method of providing for the needs of the gifted pupil is to accelerate grade placement. The most serious objection to this method is the inevitable physical and social maladjustments resulting from association with older children. He may be a nuisance in athletic contests, a misfit at class parties, and immature in social interests. Some large school systems segregate gifted children in special classes created for them apart from the regular groups. This requires the building of a special curriculum for them and the provision for individual differences in these special groups may be a problem of as great a magnitude as in unsegregated groups.

The most widely acclaimed plan for gifted pupils is the enriched curriculum. Basic to this plan is a sufficient variety of books and reference materials in which gifted pupils can do independent reading and research. Necessary, too, is the provision for a sufficient variety of activities which not only will challenge the pupils but will provide social interaction where bright, average, and dull children can learn to play and plan together. The bright child needs to learn to accept responsibility, to respect the potential talents of other pupils, and to tolerate the academic

shortcomings of his slow-learning associates. The intellectual capacity of bright pupils can usually be challenged in literature dealing with science whether it be home economics or flying an airplane. Enrichment of the curriculum may take the form of (1) modifying the program of studies to include more challenging subjects and more opportunity for creative work; (2) helping pupils to work on class projects that make a contribution to class, school, and community; (3) encouraging independent work in science, art, music, or writing; (4) committee work; and (5) community study. Enrichment by introducing "more of the same" is not the answer to the problem of the adjustment for the gifted.

## GUIDANCE OF THE GIFTED

Plans should be made to identify the gifted child early so that a long-term program or education may be organized. Guidance is necessary if the gifted pupil is to become a well-adjusted, happy, and successful personality. Developmental guidance of the gifted child follows the general pattern of effective guidance for all children. More specifically it requires: (1) special study of the child to recognize and understand abilities and talents; (2) specific guidance of the parent to provide experiences in home, school, and community; (3) helping the child to progress in academic achievement with satisfaction; (4) assisting the child to develop a concept of his most acceptable self and his responsibility to society for gifts; and (5) assisting the child to attain emotional maturity.

### The Child with Special Academic Disability

Academic disability will be defined here as a deviation from the normal performance in fundamental skills such as reading, arithmetic, and written or oral expression. How, you may ask, does this definition differ from the slow learner? Generally speaking, there is no difference except in terms of specificity. To be more specific an example of "disability in reading" is presented here. This disability in relation to its causes and treatment is so similar to other academic disabilities that illustrations for other skills should not be necessary.

#### IDENTIFYING THE CHILD WITH AN ACADEMIC DISABILITY

The classroom teacher will be the first to apprehend a possible academic disability in reading. His judgment, however, serves only as an initial attack on the causes and treatment. As with other forms of guid-

ance the procedure for assisting a child with an academic disability is to integrate training with methods of understanding the child. In other words, understanding the child and treatment for his difficulties go on simultaneously; understanding and treatment can scarcely be segregated. Nevertheless, we shall begin a discussion of diagnosis and identification of difficulties by suggesting the use of:

1. *Standardized tests:* (a) to determine intelligence quotient and to gain insight into personality (recommended tests are the Stanford-Binet or the Wechsler-Bellevue for mental ability); (b) to study growth and achievement of what has been learned (achievement tests in the common school subjects); (c) to determine specific reading abilities and difficulties (recommended tests are the Iowa Silent Reading, the Stanford Silent Reading, the Gray Oral Reading, or the Gates Primary or Reading Readiness).

2. *Physical tests:* (a) to determine general health (should be given by pediatrician or school nurse); (b) to determine status of sight and hearing (school testing may include a screening test of vision by use of the telebinocular. An ophthalmograph may be obtained to get a picture of eye movements during reading and of rate of reading. Referral will frequently be made to specialists for these examinations.); (c) to determine dominance, that is, to determine if left-sidedness or mixed dominance is present.

3. Formal and informal methods of acquiring information about the child. Typical examples are briefly sketched as follows: (a) Establish a good classroom climate. The teacher *himself* should not be shocked or disturbed by unconventional ways of behavior. The climate must be permissive enough so children will reveal what they do and feel and think to the teacher. Ideas and knowledge are shared in a spirit of mutual coöperation and individual responsibilities. (b) Interview the pupil and his parents to become aware of child's hobbies, interests, and best friends. Comments of parents reveal pressures placed on the child, e.g., "Why did my child have to be the one to have this trouble?" "I can't understand why he can't read; he is bright in everything else!" (c) Study the environment: frequently, neither the home nor the school provides the child with an adequate *sense of security fundamental for emotional stability.* In learning to read, has the child been made to feel incompetent by parents, peers, and teachers? An over-protected child can seldom arrive at a realistic understanding of himself nor can he develop in the dependence of action an initiative necessary to learn to

read. The child who has had a background of rich, varied, and pleasant experiences in all probability has also had pleasant experiences with words and books. What language is spoken at home? In what type of neighborhood does he live? (d) Observe the child in school. Does the child tire easily and become irritable and inattentive when his energy is low? How do the child's eyes move across the page? What word-analysis techniques are used? Does the child have ability to articulate and phrase in oral reading? From older students self-disparaging remarks usually flow freely at the outset of reading instruction. Students' reading failures lead them to expect further failure and prompt them to exhibit withdrawal tendencies such as non-participation in class discussion. Poor readers in college have been noted to rationalize their performance by exhibiting inability to concentrate, sensitivity to distraction, and making excuses for lack of time. (e) Use the case conference. The consultation group may consist of a combination or all of the following: the counselor, psychologist, social worker, speech therapist, teachers and school administrators, parents, and pupils. Occasionally probation officers, peace officers, and clergymen are included. Permanent record files are studied, health records examined, and data re-analyzed to determine present and past subject-area difficulties, achievement psychological status. Decisions are made to initiate possible remedial procedures.

## HOW TO ASSIST THE PUPIL WITH A SPECIAL ACADEMIC DISABILITY

Volumes have been written describing what to do for the child with an academic disability. These methods can be summarized as: (1) provide adequate classroom environment, (2) stimulate and use interests of students, (3) provide an opportunity for the child to learn in a group setting, and (4) assist students to read in all curriculum areas.

*Provide adequate classroom environment:* Make an effort to determine as accurately as possible the immediate problems of the group members. Attempt to achieve a feeling of rapport which encourages pupils to discuss their intimate problems and feelings. Rapport is not too difficult to establish if the teacher tries to understand pupils and to identify himself with them in an effort to know their feelings instead of assuming the role of an authoritarian. The teacher should honestly try to be a good listener who never passes judgment but guides his pupils in their search for answers to their problems. Good rapport builds an atmosphere for individual interview, open questioning, and sociodrama.

Examples of the open question are: What do you think are the characteristics of parent-child relationships? What do you like best about your parents? In what ways do you wish they were different?

Desirable classroom environment requires that the teacher be an adult friend. The teacher should have skill to work with the pupil's family, to learn of the pupil's out-of-school interests, to inculcate a democratic spirit of recognizing each pupil's unique worth. Intense emotional strain and academic disability seem to interact, each adding stress to the other. If academic disability is caused by a basic personality problem, the problem must be solved before progress can be made.

*Stimulate and use interests of students:* Discover father's work and use this as a starting point for the elementary child, e.g., father is a pilot, thus airplane stories may be used. Reading must compete for the child's leisure with television, radio, motion pictures, and comic books.

The reader interprets what he reads only in relation to his present experiences and his interests and beliefs. One junior high school boy, for example, accepted the behavior of a teen-age girl in a story on the ground that it was the typical behavior of his sister. Other pupils neither accepted or appreciated the solution of the problem. Teachers should have available materials which provide adolescents with help in facing whatever problem is important to them. Growing out of meaningful life situations, children's interests provide the key to adjusting the curriculum to the child. If the teacher is to provide the proper environment in which learning may occur, it is of utmost importance that he discover those situations with which the pupil is concerned and with which he identifies himself in satisfying his need for adjustment.

*Provide a large variety of appropriate materials:* To develop a feeling of responsibility and self-reliance pupils should have every opportunity and encouragement to participate in establishing purposes and methods of improving skills. The pupil should be permitted to learn in a group atmosphere. Grouping children for learning fundamental skills, e.g., reading, has been accepted procedure for many years. Two or more people drawn together with a common purpose form a group. Criteria for the selection of members of a group are based upon the social and educational needs which may best be met in the social setting the group creates. A common misconception of grouping is that the groups remain rigid. Flexibility is always a characteristic of successful grouping; as needs and interests vary and change, groups must be rearranged. Al-

though individuals may work at separate reading tasks alone, frequently they work in small groups where each pupil completes a part of the group project which he contributes to the finished product. The group may work on the same reading activity, yet the amount and quality of each individual will differ.

## Adjusting the Curriculum to the Socially Maladjusted

The child is well adjusted when his behavior does not interfere with his personal growth or with the lives of other people. Behavior of children may vary from minor disturbances to acts of a criminal nature. The modern educator tends to think in terms of norms and deviations. In general, behavior has meaning only when it is given a social setting. It is said to be deviant if it differs from the central tendency and the extent of this deviation is one factor in describing maladjustment. The seriousness of maladjustment is one of degree and may be tested according to the five criteria listed as follows:

1. How broad is the area of conflict? Is the observable behavior peculiar to the classroom only, or does it extend to the home? Does deviant behavior occur only when a difficult problem presents itself or only after reprimand? Generally, the wider the area the more difficult and serious the problem.

2. For how long a period of time has the problem persisted? With the exception of a severe traumatic experience, problems of long duration are generally more serious than those of recent occurrence. Any sudden change of behavior, however, is usually a danger sign.

3. Do common-sense methods fail to bring results? Strength of resistance toward modification of behavior under attempted guidance may be indicative of seriousness. If the problem brings satisfactions which the individual is unwilling to relinquish, the solution of the maladjustment is difficult.

4. Repeated maladjusted behavior in face of strong therapeutic methods generally indicates depth of the problem. Symptoms indicative of unusual depth of the problem take the form of phobias, compulsions, panic states, complete regression from social contacts; in fact, maladjustment may display the symptoms of any such organic impairment as hysterical blindness, paralysis, deafness, anaesthesia, and so on.

5. The seriousness of behavior may be judged by the type of treatment required. Will the requirements for treatment include medical, psychological, and psychiatric treatment? If the behavior can be im-

proved by means of classroom procedures it is not as serious as if psychiatric treatment were required.

STEPS TOWARD UNDERSTANDING AND GUIDING
THE MALADJUSTED CHILD (32)

The problems of diagnosis and therapy in assisting the maladjusted child are intricate and almost defy classification in terms of steps. Understanding a youngster usually results in his improved behavior; therapy ordinarily requires increased understanding. The following steps for understanding and guiding the child may be used with varying degrees of expertness and success by the teacher or specialist.

1. Collect as much relevant information as possible.
2. Classify data by arranging the facts and placing them in a frame of reference.
3. Check the validity of data.
4. Make the data more meaningful by (a) synthesis and diagnosis, (b) detecting the presence or absence of problems, (c) designating the important and unimportant, (d) determining the need for more data, and (f) checking hypotheses against a framework of explanatory principles.
5. Plan the initiation of treatment.
6. Experiment with methods of therapy.
7. Evaluate effect of treatment and make further plans on basis of evaluation.

SOME CLINICAL TECHNIQUES USEFUL TO THE TEACHER

Having found the student's problem of maladjustment and having made hypotheses concerning the cause, the teacher has already progressed toward accomplishment. However, we shall consider here four possible methods for helping the maladjusted child. All four methods are clinical in nature but with some modification they can be successfully used by the conscientious teacher. The methods to be considered in order are: (1) play therapy, (2) art therapy, (3) bibliotherapy, and (4) recreational therapy.

### The Use of Play to Assist the Maladjusted Child

Play is a natural and major form of expression of childhood. Distinct from work, play is activity pursued for its own sake. Although the time of appearance varies, play activities occur in an orderly sequence, and child psychologists generally agree that if opportunity has been lacking

a normal child may regress to an earlier stage in his play interests. The suggestion of the following sequential play pattern is quite satisfactory for general application (*18*):

1. Play as bodily activity is the earliest form of all children's play. During the time that speech is being acquired.
2. Play as realization of experience gained in previous years is the next necessity of childhood.
3. Play as demonstration of fantasy follows play as interior realization, and the two are interwoven; experience feeds fantasy and fantasy feeds experience.
4. Play as realization of environment is his means of expressing his orientation. The child five or six . . . turns naturally outward toward his environment.

The uses to which play may be put have been adequately summarized by Amster (*2*) as: (1) to aid in diagnostic understanding, (2) to establish a working relationship, (3) to reëstablish different ways of playing, (4) to help the patient verbalize certain materials, (5) to help the child act out unconscious material, and (6) to develop an interest in play useful in other settings. In guidance we may consider play as a medium for understanding children and a therapeutic technique in which special training is necessary. By observing the child at play the teacher may detect incipient symptoms of deeply disturbing problems. Because the theory and practice of play therapy is discussed in some detail in chapter 20, we shall devote no more space to the topic here.

### Aids to Adjustment Through Expression in Art

Play with such unstructured materials as clay, paste, dough, cold cream, or finger paints will reveal the usually unconscious, intangible thinking and fantasy of the child. Our discussion in the subsequent paragraphs shall be limited to expression with the use of "semistructured" materials, such as crayons, brush paints, pens, and pencils.

Although children's drawings facilitate understanding of their behavior the teacher should never attempt to analyze them beyond their obvious meanings. They are useful only when considered with other data gathered from all possible sources. In addition to helping the teacher diagnose personality patterns, drawing and painting are becoming increasingly valuable as therapeutic techniques. As with play activities, the average teacher should use extreme caution in interpreting children's drawings.

## THE DEVELOPMENTAL SEQUENCE OF EXPRESSION
## BY DRAWING OR PAINTING

The study of the personality of the child through his drawing and painting is facilitated by a knowledge of the developmental aspects of children's drawings at various stages of maturation. These general developmental stages are discernible when examining drawings by large numbers of various aged children: (1) the scribbling stage, characterized by random dots and dashes, lines, whirls, and circular forms; (2) subjective representation of what is seen rather than what is felt—such as drawing the human face, the human form, or almost any simple object; (3) realistic representation characterized by a continuance of subjective, decoratively-printed words, caricatures, human forms, and conventional designs *(10)*.

### THE TECHNIQUES OF ART THERAPY

The behavior accompanying painting and drawing can reveal significant personality characteristics. Does the child erase constantly? Does he complain because he cannot draw well enough? Does he work meticulously over minute details? Does he constantly compare his drawings with those of adults? The affirmative answer to these inquiries may indicate strong parental pressure to keep the home orderly or to perform all tasks to perfection. Urgent demands made by perfectionist parents can cause feelings of inferiority and general dissatisfaction with self. A child's worry over much detail is frequently the sign of excessive worry and of an emotionally disturbing perfectionism. The factors of meticulousness, rigid adherence to rules, and strenuous attempts at true representation are indicative of anxiety, repression, inhibition, emotional stubbornness, and general lack of emotional stability. It would be wrong, however, to assume that all paintings refer to emotionally disturbing events; a sequence of drawings over a long period of time may, nevertheless, be indicative of maladjustment.

Frequently it is not the drawing itself as much as what is said about it that provides the key to hidden emotions and attitudes. When a child under study is painting or drawing he may be encouraged by the teacher to tell his story as he works. Notations of his comments together with the art product often reveal the dynamics of the child's feelings. Social conduct, too, during the painting period can reveal much about the child. Interpretations must be based on a stenographic record of remarks

made, an anecdotal record of what the child did, a sequence of pictures or art products.

It is natural for children to express themselves emotionally in materials and activities. If a child from four to ten has no apparent interest in drawing or painting and refuses to try, this in itself may be a symptom of personality disturbance. The group situation provides an opportunity to overcome the resistance of children who refuse to participate. Reticent children may be asked to assist in distributing art material and mixing paint. Tactful and gradual exposure to art work may lead the pupil to express himself in painting and drawing.

Expression in drawing and painting is therapeutic in that it provides emotional release, pleasant motor activity, feelings of achievement and success, and a deep satisfaction of recreation. Under guidance by a well-trained clinician these activities can strengthen the ego, release unconscious fears and anxieties, and eventually resolve persistent inhibitions.

## The Use of Bibliotherapy as an Aid to Adjustment

Bibliotherapy is a type of clinical method based on the theory that readings should be selected to fit the pressing needs of the reader, e.g., if a girl is using too much rouge, the teacher should select for her a story about a girl who learns to apply rouge in good taste. The important thing is to have available materials which provide pupils with help in facing whatever problem is of importance to them. Rather than attempt bibliotherapy directly, the teacher will be more successful if she uses a related approach.

The amount and extent to which reading experience promotes personal and social adjustment has not been fully determined. In a typical study of this nature children in grades four through eight inclusive were asked to list any book which had changed their thinking or attitudes in any way. An analysis of 502 responses revealed that in 60.7 percent of the cases, changes in attitudes were reported. Nearly one-third of the pupils stated that reading had led them to revise their thinking in a certain field. In this study practically as many titles were mentioned in any one room as there were children who responded (25).

Reports of a planned use of books to assist pupils to solve personal problems have indicated positive gains. Through use of a sociometric scale Elkins (8) selected children rejected by their peers for special study. These children expressed concern over other people's opinions of them, their personal appearances, the financial status of their parents,

and the health of their families. Literature dealing with these problems was read and discussed by the pupils to the point of having a desirable effect in better adjustment.

Keneally describes Moore's successful work in bibliotherapy *(16)*. A list of approximately 263 children's books was prepared and indexed according to headings such as honesty, obedience, sportsmanship, and self-reliance. From this list books were chosen for children according to their problems, and these were read and discussed under guidance directed toward application of principles.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS FOR USING BIBLIOTHERAPY

1. Find needs of a particular individual or group and select reading material which may help to fill the needs. The teacher must have an understanding of the problems of young people and what things are of great importance to them. Bibliotherapy can be successful only when the teacher is able to guide pupils to reading experiences that satisfy particular needs or aids in the solution of individual problems.

2. Use index of human-relations situations in literature, e.g., Alice R. Brooks, "Developmental Values in Books" (in *Youth, Communication and Libraries,* edited by Frances Henne, Alice Brooks, and Ruth Ersted, Chicago, American Library Association, 1949).

3. Provide a classroom atmosphere in which the child can satisfy his needs for growth, for discovery, for making social contacts, for achieving independence. The classroom must be a place in which the child knows without question that his queries will be acceptable and that they will be granted consideration and respect.

4. Know where feelings of prejudice and bias appear and consider them in a positive and realistic fashion. The following examples and situations will stimulate discussion: a group of adolescents working in night clubs, bowling alleys, dance bands, concessions at carnivals. The conversation may be directed toward courage, honesty, defeat, success, sorrow, and happiness in a mature realistic fashion.

5. Building understandings, attitudes, and appreciations is a continuous process extending over a long period of time. Changes cannot be expected from reading without some guidance. Only a well-planned curriculum that provides for variety in both content and activities can develop correct understandings of human behavior, wholesome attitudes toward people, and improved patterns of behavior.

6. Use books and stories as a springboard for discussions, dramatic

play, and other learning activities which contribute to significant under-
standings and behavior traits. One teacher, realizing that a pupil's
concept of a policeman needed to be changed, immediately planned
experiences in which children would learn to appreciate the policeman
as a friend and helper. When children begin to understand that other
people have feelings and problems similar to theirs they show more
tolerance and willingness to coöperate in school and at home.

7. Guard against treating cases which should have the services of
psychiatrists.

## SUMMARY

Introducing a discussion of group guidance, this chapter deals with
the learning process in a public school setting; that is, the child is re-
garded as a member of the traditional classroom group with a teacher
who stimulates and guides activities leading to learning. Education is
concerned with providing and controlling experiences so that full
development of the individual in the light of his needs and capabilities
will be assured. The teacher controls the activities of pupils only in
terms of a broad, general framework, leaving as much as possible of the
planning of the details to the pupils.

In this chapter we have considered the basic human needs which
require satisfaction; such as desire for affection, recognition, security,
and new experience. Guidance is required to help the child successfully
modify these needs and their satisfaction according to the folkways,
mores, and institutions of his society. Basic to all group guidance is the
recognition of maturational patterns which require a sufficient variety of
problems to meet individual differences. The recognition of individual
differences and provision for optimum conditions under which each
child can and will develop his potentials constitute the real task of
guidance.

Several current and historical procedures for meeting individual dif-
ferences by grouping have been described. Finally, however, the criterion
for grouping pupils is the particular task to be accomplished. There
are no standardized sizes for groups. For example, a group may range
from three or four pupils who are learning the process of long division
to a group of several hundred who have gone to an auditorium to hear
a music recital. The introduction of the core curriculum into our high
schools may tell us many things about our grouping methods. Have we
been keeping our groups together for too long a time? Is it desirable to

group pupils to receive instruction in algebra, English, or general science? Is there any reason why a slow group in an elementary school reading class should remain together in the first grade for an entire year?

The kind of grouping a teacher plans with his pupils is largely the function of the kind of information he has about individuals—including their home situations, cultural backgrounds, relationships to other children, and experiences that motivate action.

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# The Teacher as Guide in the Learning Process

## INTRODUCTION

THE training of the teacher and the professional school counselor differs only in intensity and emphasis. To be an intelligent counselor the teacher should have some training in all those techniques considered in Part II, "Techniques for Understanding the Individual," and in Part III "Techniques for Using Information Found About Children." Such clinical techniques as play therapy, art therapy, and bibliotherapy, for example, which may all be useful to the teacher in guidance for social adjustment, are adequately described in chapter 16 and will not be repeated here. On the other hand, the topic of "Parent-Teacher Conference," and "How Can Teachers Be Given Information About Pupils," have not been granted sufficient attention and, therefore, will be discussed in this chapter.

Intelligent guidance by the teacher requires understandings of children and their needs. A teacher must have a strong conviction that each pupil is intrinsically valuable; that physical and social maturity are factors with which to reckon; that every child deserves to be loved; that activities must be provided at which success is possible. In short, the teacher should know as much as possible about the past and present life of the child and his family.

The teacher should be familiar with four areas of pupil growth: physical, emotional, social, and intellectual. A consideration of any one of these areas alone will result in an atomistic approach to personality;

therefore, it is necessary to recognize total growth as an integration of all areas. Furthermore, the child grows through constant interaction between himself and his environment; thus to understand him thoroughly we need data not only concerning his personal needs but also the needs of the society in which he lives.

It is unfortunate in many respects that writers have spoken of guidance in two somewhat different contexts; i.e., guidance of the pupil in learning situations and guidance of the pupil in personality development. Although attention is given to these two uses of the word "guidance" in subsequent pages, the word deserves some definition in this introduction.

Guidance of learning pertains to the curriculum areas; to learning in the subject matter of content fields such as communicative arts, quantitative thinking, scientific thinking, and social learning. Such learning, however, cannot be considered without recognition of the importance of the emotions and other personality factors. The common feature of guidance in subject matter is that of a standardized sequence of thinking under the heading of objectives, methods of determining the degree of achieving these objectives, the factors associated with faulty learning, techniques for locating factors interfering with successful learning, and suggestions for remedying faults revealed by diagnosis.
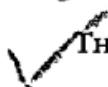
## THE TEACHER IS A NECESSARY FUNCTIONARY IN THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM

Inasmuch as guidance is a part of the total education process, all teachers have general responsibilities in contributing to the guidance program. The close relationship between the classroom teacher and the guidance program has reciprocal advantages. On the one hand, the teacher provides information about the student which can be obtained only in the daily observation in the classroom. It is the teacher's immediate and continuing contact with students which enables him to observe them more frequently and under a greater variety of conditions. Reported observations in the form of anecdotes, written student expressions, products of students' work, and so on make a valuable contribution to counselors and administrators.

On the other hand, the classroom teacher is helped to understand his pupils and provide learning experiences for them through information provided by the guidance program. Furthermore, guidance services will usually take care of those problems of maladjustment which are beyond

the diagnostic and therapeutic skill of the teacher. By channeling the students to the counselor, the teacher is relieved of the task of surveying the community for helpful resources. A central agency with a counselor or guidance-director facilitates referral procedures as well as the discovery of new resources available to the school.

In the typical school (high schools especially) emphasis is still on subjects and the student is continuously urged to focus his attention on specific courses. Regardless of extrinsic devices, however, interest and attention depend upon meaningfulness and the degree to which the pupil thinks his needs are being satisfied. Every student has the right to know what bearing a subject can be expected to have on the realization of his objectives. Because there are students who do not have clearly established objectives, it is necessary for the teacher to assist in making choices and choosing goals. The aim of every teacher should be to stimulate new interests, to encourage worth-while preferences, and to help youth to define and solve their problems adequately. Regardless of the subject being taught, the student has the right to vocational information related to that subject. Likewise, the contributions of a subject to achieving good mental and physical health should be made clear to the student.

No precise division of duties has developed to the extent that we can assign certain functions and say, "This duty belongs to the counselor and to him only." Regardless of the number of special counselors, the teacher will continue to be the central functionary in the guidance program. His greatest contribution will be made as a part of his regular classroom activities, not in a special period set aside for counseling purposes. Although a teacher's guidance contribution in the classroom is important, his contribution in home-rooms, class groups, the core curriculum, and parent-teacher relationships is indispensable.

The specific responsibilities of teachers may be suggested in the form of questions similar to the following:

Am I acquainted with each of the pupils in each of my classes?

Am I constantly reorganizing my subject-matter and organizing activities in view of what I know about my pupils?

Am I using my subject-matter and directing activities to provide special services to each pupil?

Am I attempting to prevent personal problems from developing?

Do I use available guidance resources?

## THE TEACHER-COUNSELOR

Differences of opinion are rampant as to the relative desirability of centralized or decentralized plan of counseling. Even in these school systems where there is strong emphasis on a central staff of specialists, there is still recognized the need for certain counseling services which only the classroom teacher can best perform.

Professional school counselors are classified with that group of school personnel who work on a full-time basis with no teaching assignments and are assigned a certain number of students to counsel. The teacher-counselor is one who has a part-time teaching assignment and, as the remainder of his duty, he must offer counseling service to a selected number of students. In addition to these two types of counselors, there is the teacher with a full-time teaching assignment who has certain guidance functions to perform as an integral part of his classroom instruction.

Is there a difference between counseling and teaching? Ideally and theoretically no difference exists but from a professional and technical point of view there has developed a difference, especially discernible in secondary and higher education. Note, for example, the definition of counseling as stated by Jager (*13*). "Counseling . . . describes the work done by the counselor in the face-to-face assistance to individuals who apply to him for aid in solving personal problems related to their adjustment."

In this definition we note some specific elements which characterize counseling: (1) *Face-to-face assistance to individuals.* The individual may be alone or he may be in company with other individuals. "Counseling" usually refers to a one-to-one relationship rather than to a one-to-group relationship. If more than one is receiving assistance at one time it would be referred to as "group counseling."

The face-to-face situation represents two people in action together and involves a dynamic impact of one person on another. The counselor must be skillful in observing human nature; reacting with human nature; and in guarding against an authoritarian, paternalistic, or sympathetic role. He must maintain a situation in which the counselee will reveal his yearnings as a person and will profit by the stimulus of the partnership.

(2) *Assistance to individuals who apply for aid in solving personal problems.* Generally speaking, in the classroom the individual has not

applied for aid. Perhaps it would be more appropriate to say he has not applied for aid in solving personal problems.

"Counseling" would imply that assistance deals with the more personal, emotional, spiritual, and "private" situations of life. These situations frequently arise in man's relationships with man—aggressions, frustrations, hostilities, those things which are negative through inherent necessity of living together. Human relations often result in tension, conflict, and competition which can be reduced by the counseling process.

Counseling, however, cannot be completely divorced from teaching. The teacher-counselor is likely to minimize the methodological or subject-matter aspects of his work and emphasize his interest in the individual pupil. He will inevitably become a more skillful and significant questioner and observer. He will carefully choose materials and direct activities in the classroom which will be pertinent to students' abilities, interests, and needs. He will be more likely to stimulate, to guide, and to direct improvement both in what is taught and how it is taught.

In a discussion on the uniqueness of counseling the argument of Fowler (8) appears to be logical. Counseling, he says, should not be regarded as a new kind of relationship with a pupil solely because of failure caused by a disregard for the pupil as an individual. Learning and growth occur in classroom teaching and in the counseling relationships, but the content or subject matter of the experiences differs. The reëxamination and approval of self in relationship to the content is the primary concern of the counseling relationship. Teachers must bear the basic responsibility for counseling. Who else is in the continuous touch and strategic position to see and weigh symptomatic need for counseling and thus develop in the pupils who need it a readiness to accept counseling?

## How Can the Teacher Get Information About the Pupil?

The information about a student collected by a single teacher will present only a partial, thus distorted, picture of a pupil. How, then, can he obtain information collected by other personnel of the staff? The usual sources are the cumulative record, faculty meetings, guidance committee reports, a teacher's manual, guidance bulletins, case conferences, and student's plan sheet.

## THE CUMULATIVE RECORD

The cumulative record is the most convenient form to supply the teacher with information about his students. The cumulative record contains essential data on social and economic background, occupational and recreational experience, home and family statistics, experiences in responsibility and leadership, school grades, standard test records, physical and health information. In some schools certain teachers are given the responsibility of keeping the records up to date. Social living teachers, for example, frequently have the responsibility of giving, recording, and evaluating tests. Cumulative records sometimes are distributed to social living teachers; the records progress with pupils through junior and senior high school. Students complete a personal history which includes information on their interests, likes, dislikes, family relationships, and an autobiography.

So that simple conclusions can be drawn accurately after examining data from the cumulative record, it will be necessary for the teacher to have training in the interpretation of cumulative data. Meaning of test scores, for example, is frequently too complex for the average teacher and must be explained by the specially trained counselor.

## THE FACULTY MEETING

Although the faculty meeting generally should not be a case conference on a particular student, it contributes to the knowledge and understanding of pupil behavior. The faculty meeting should be concerned with the teachers' professional needs and focused on problems in the immediate school environment. The study of school discipline, for example, will eventually lead to the study of basic drives of human behavior.

## COMMITTEE REPORTS

Participation on committees aids the teacher to gain information from colleagues about the guidance program in general and about the student body and particular students. Committee reports will summarize surveys to reveal the nature of pupil problems, interests, and needs; surveys of graduates and drop-outs for aid in determining the guidance program's effects upon pupils' post-graduate life; reports of numbers participating in extra-classroom activities; reports of recent educational research pertinent to guidance—and other topics too numerous to list in detail.

## TEACHERS' MANUALS

The teachers' manuals may serve as a general orientation to the school's program or it may deal exclusively with guidance work. In any case, it may deal with such items as the testing program, student activities, library facilities, community resources, referral procedures, and organizational plans. The manual devoted to guidance work may deal with the guidance program organization, where teachers may get information about pupils, referral procedures, testing programs, student activities, in-service training plans, home-room plan, assemblies, and faculty social activities.

## GUIDANCE BULLETINS

Bulletins are read more widely than teachers' manuals; they are easily prepared and inexpensively distributed; they are up-to-date and adaptable to new ideas as these are developed. Bulletins may be used to inform teachers of vocational data, to present services of the guidance program for students, to call attention to information which teachers can transmit, and to present valuable materials of instruction.

## CASE CONFERENCES

All people interested in a particular pupil meet to pool and interpret data. It is a form of coöperative conference devoted to the intensive study of an individual student. Its main purpose is the gaining of an understanding of the student so that recommendations may be made.

## HOME VISITATION

For those teachers who can work with parents satisfactorily the home visit is an excellent medium for gaining information. Reports of these home visits to other teachers are helpful in case conferences or teacher-with-teacher or teacher-with-administrator interviews. The parent-teacher conference is of such importance that considerable space will be given to the discussion of it in subsequent pages.

## THE PUPILS' PLAN SHEET

A plan sheet presents significant data about the student in helping him to formulate and evaluate his future courses of action. Space is provided for basic identification information: his general school background, his interests and hobbies, his work experiences, his tentative

educational and vocational choices, his desires for participation in school activities, and his choices for school courses. A plan sheet is completed for each student in the school and placed in the cumulative folder for ready reference and discussion. Basically, the plan sheet is a work-sheet and should be used at any time the student is confronted with making choices. It is amended and modified as needed.

### PLAN SHEET USED BY JORDAN HIGH SCHOOL
### SANDY, UTAH

........................ ........................ ........................

Last Name              First Name              Birth

........................................ ........................

Address

........................................

Parent or Guardian

Indicate which of the following         Schools Last Attended
courses you wish to follow:         School                     Year

College Prep ....................      ........................ ......
Commercial ....................      ........................ ......
Industrial ....................       ........................ ......
General ....................           ........................ ......

                                       Main Interests, Abilities, and
After School I plan to:                          Hobbies:
Go to Work ....................       ........................................
Go to College ................        ........................................

*Vocational Choice* ..............     ........................................

........................................    *Work Experience*
........................................    ........................................
                                       ........................................

#### PLAN OF COURSE

| *9th Grade* | *10th Grade* |
|---|---|
| ........................... | ........................... |
| ........................... | ........................... |
| ........................... | ........................... |
| ........................... | ........................... |
| ........................... | ........................... |
| ........................... | ........................... |
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| ........................... | ........................... |
| ........................... | ........................... |

| *11th Grade* | *12th Grade* |
|---|---|
| .............................. | .............................. |
| .............................. | .............................. |
| .............................. | .............................. |
| .............................. | .............................. |
| .............................. | .............................. |
| .............................. | .............................. |
| .............................. | .............................. |
| .............................. | .............................. |
| Signature ................... | Date ....................... |

## The Teacher's Contribution to Guidance Through the Teacher-Parent Conference

### *The Teacher's Responsibility for Good Public Relations*

Possibly at no time in the history of public education has there been greater need for improving home-school relationships. A truly effective program of guidance involves the active and intelligent coöperation of parents; and parents can be expected to give their coöperation only when they understand what the school is trying to do and why. Good school-public relations starts in the classroom with the pupil acting as the intermediary whose judgment of the school impresses the parent. Judgments of the school system and teachers are frequently made upon impressions or reports as a result of a single contact with a teacher. From typical daily conversations such as "What did you learn today?"—"Oh, we just played." "What did you do in school today?"—"We spent most of the day practicing for the senior play," parents gain general impressions and make quick evaluations.

Why do some communities know more about their schools and accept them better than do other communities? The answer implies a lack of understanding of why and how changes are made. The Board of Education, the faculty, the pupils, and the parents must all seek a common understanding of educational needs and create ways and means for meeting and satisfying these needs.

### *The Teacher-Parent Conference in the Educational Program*

The teacher-parent conference is a two-way street. The parent learns what the school is attempting to accomplish, what it demands of the child, and what kind of environment it provides for the pupil popula-

tion. The parent recognizes the teacher as a person including his problems, his opinions of the child, his professional life. Both teacher and parent can learn to give honest appraisal to the child's work and to direct his activities toward constructive and creative use of equipment and materials. Both can gain insight into the meaning of child behavior, including an understanding of the interaction in group living and the reasons for the child's successes and failures.

By means of the conference the teacher gains information about the child's family background, interests, recreation, and vocation. The standards of living and culture pattern in which the child lives in home and community assume great significance. The teacher gains an understanding of the parents' philosophy of rearing children and their methods of discipline, direction, or control. He makes judgments about the parents' ability to guide the child in personality training and in the acquisition of academic skills. Furthermore, he soon discovers what the parent thinks about the school and the teacher. All information a teacher gains from the parent may aid him in diagnosing and treating the emotional problems of children.

### Kinds of Teacher-Parent Conferences

The kinds of teacher-parent contact may be classified under several categories, e.g., direct and indirect, scheduled and unscheduled, in-school and out-of-school, purposeful and non-purposeful, etc.

Direct contact would include face-to-face interviews and counseling; while the indirect would include the child as the intermediary, the written note, and possibly the telephone conversation. The scheduled conference would include the uniform system of conference for all parents at a definite and limited time. The unscheduled would include incidental school visitation, sometimes on invitation of the teacher and at other times spontaneous and informal.

In-school contact would include many of the types listed above and perhaps committee or child-study groups, parent-teachers meetings, or special programs and assemblies. Out-of-school contact would include neighborhood gatherings, and casual conversations in stores, at church, or even on the street.

According to purpose we may list examples of parent contact as (1) general interest, e.g., "I thought I'd drop by just to see how everything is"; (2) inquiry regarding school progress, e.g., "Mary is not learning phonics in her reading. I thought I'd come over to see

why"; (3) adjustment problems, e.g., "Jimmy doesn't want to come to school. What can I do?"; (4) health, e.g., "John has the mumps. I came to get his assignments."

From the teacher's point of view a conference may be held for the purpose of: (1) getting acquainted, (2) gaining information, (3) giving information, (4) personal adjustment. This will be discussed in detail in following pages.

### Mechanical Aspects of Teacher-Parent Conference

One of the most successful patterns of teacher-parent conference is that of a general school-wide plan which has been coöperatively developed by administrators, teachers, and parents. The first mechanical aspect of such a plan is the preparation of appropriate schedules. Important questions such as these must be answered satisfactorily: Has a schedule been arranged so the parent will not have to wait? Can parents who have more than one child in school have consecutive conferences? Do parents realize another conference is scheduled after theirs? Have individual family problems been considered? e.g., is there a young baby in the family or do both parents work so evening conferences will be necessary?

#### THE QUESTION OF TIME

How frequently should the conferences be held? How many minutes for each conference? Following are some general plans that might be helpful in scheduling conferences. They can easily be modified to conform to local conditions:

*Plan No. 1.*
> October—Parent-teacher conference.
> February—Parent-teacher conference.

*Plan No. 2.*
> October—Parent-teacher conference.
> November—Report card.
> January—Parent-teacher conference.
> March—Report card.
> May—Report card.

*Plan No. 3.*
> October—Pupil-teacher conference
> November—Parent-teacher conference.

December—Report card.
January—Pupil-teacher conference.
February—Parent-teacher conference.
March—Report card.
April—Pupil-teacher conference.
May—Report card.

*Plan No. 4.*

September—Pupil-teacher conference.
October—Parent-teacher conference.
January—Pupil-teacher conference.
February—Parent-teacher conference.

How long should the conference be? Scheduled conferences must be limited in time; one school, for example, found that fifteen minutes per parent with a five minute recess at intervals of forty-five minutes was quite satisfactory.

How does the teacher find time? Two alternatives: (1) a non-school hour, (2) released school time. Having studied and experimented with the teacher-parent conference some school administrators consider conferences an integral part of the teaching and learning process and thus released teaching time becomes an established school policy. Released teaching time may extend one full day, two afternoons and one evening, or two afternoons and a Saturday morning, or perhaps the last hour and a half each day may be designated until the task is finished.

## TYPES OF SCHEDULES NEEDED

Three types of schedules are essential, (1) a master schedule, (2) a teacher schedule, and (3) an administrator's schedule. On the master schedule can first be placed the names of all those parents having more than one child in the school. Let us start with a sixth-grade teacher, for example, who has a parent having three children in the school. The parent is scheduled by the sixth-grade teacher for two o'clock; the fourth-grade teacher who has a child of the same family schedules the parent for 2:20; and the first-grade teacher schedules the parent for 2:40. After the sixth-grade teacher has scheduled all of his parents who have more than one child in school the master schedule is passed to the next teacher. Parents having only one child can be scheduled by each teacher in conference periods not already filled. After the master schedule has been completed the teacher then copies his schedule so he'll

know what parent to expect each period. The administrator's schedule shows the days on which each school building is scheduled to hold conferences. An example of a master schedule is shown in Figure 4 and a teacher's schedule in Figure 5.

| Family | Date | Teacher | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Allen | Blackburn | Flowers | Slater | Smith | Kilburn |
| J. Anderson | Wed. | | | Susan 11:15 | | | Ted 1:00 |
| J. Brown | Wed. | | | | Leslie 1:00 | | Mary 1:15 |
| S. Call | Thur. | Tom 1:15 | | | | | Jim 1:30 |

Figure 4. A Master Schedule for a Teacher-Parent School-Wide Conference.

| Grade | | Teacher | Room |
|---|---|---|---|
| Day | Time | Child | Parents |
| Wed. | 1:00 | Karen Smith | Elsie and Elmer Smith |
| | 1:20 | Dan Bold | Lucy and Thomas Bold |
| | 1:40 | Kate Beard | Sarah Beard |
| Thur. | 2:00 | Jack White | Maggie and Thair White |
| | 1:00 | Les Bills | Melba and Ross Bills |

Figure 5. A Teacher's Schedule of a Teacher-Parent Conference.

## HOW SHALL PARENTS BE NOTIFIED?

The more common methods of notifying the parent and making a definite appointment with him are: (1) parent-teacher meetings where the parent chooses his own time on a master chart, (2) appointment by telephone by teacher or principal, (3) informal note by pupil or mail.

Notification to the parent of a scheduled conference has great significance. It is made only after careful approach to the entire conference system has been initiated through parent education and coöperation. Certainly there should be nothing in the notice of a negative, demanding, or sarcastic nature. When properly written it not only becomes an instrument of beneficial school-public relations but enhances the importance of the teacher-parent conference system.

A LETTER TO NOTIFY PARENT OF CONFERENCE

<div style="text-align: right">

Plain City School
November 3, 1955

</div>

Dear Parents:

Last spring in two special meetings at the school, it was unanimously decided by the many parents present to institute this year PARENT-TEACHER CONFERENCES in the place of the traditionally used report cards.

The Parent-Teacher Conference is used as a means of a two-way exchange of information on the growth of the child in relation to school activity. It is a better way of reporting to parents. Both parents and teachers are expected to profit from this interchange of experiences and can plan more efficient ways of helping the child develop as he should.

November 10th, 13th, and 14th have been selected as the days for these conferences to be held. On November 10th all the children will leave on the bus at 2:00 o'clock, on both November 13th and 14th at 12:30.

Parents are invited to confer with their child's teacher for a limited time on the date indicated below. Although many parents are restricted by certain working hours, we hope that at least one will arrange personal schedules so as to meet with the teacher promptly at the scheduled time for fifteen minutes.

.............................. is scheduled to meet ................'s
            (Teacher)                                    (Child)

parents ...................., November ....., 1955 between ..... P.M.
                  day                          date

and ............ P.M. in room ........

<div style="text-align: right">

Very respectfully yours,
Earl B. Casper, Principal

</div>

<div style="text-align: right">

Club Heights School
March 12, 1955

</div>

Dear Parents:

Our Parent-Teacher Reporting Conferences, on a school-wide basis, will be held on the afternoons of March 19th and 20th, at which time the children will be dismissed from school.

To accommodate parents with more than one child in our school it was necessary to schedule the time so that their conferences with different teachers follow in sequence.

Because of the number of parents involved, the conferences have been

limited to fifteen minutes. A bell will announce the ending of one conference and the beginning of another.

The time for our conference has been set for .................... from ........ to ........ If it is impossible for you to keep this appointment kindly let me know.

Please sign and return the attached slip with your child.

Sincerely,

........

Dear Teacher:

I will be able to meet with you at the time set for our Parent-Teacher Conference.

Signed ...............................

## Techniques of Teacher-Parent Conference Procedure

The first step in the preparation for the conference is to clarify the immediate objectives; e.g., is it to get acquainted, to promote good school-public relations, to gain information, to report pupil progress, or to accomplish all of these objectives? The purpose frequently changes as the conference progresses.

School ....................... Date ....................
Student ....................... Grade ....................
Address ....................... Date of Birth ............
Name of father ................ Mother ..................
Parent's Employment ........................................
Number of children in the home ........ Child's place in family ........

1. Child's attitude toward school.

2. Child's special interests. (Likes or dislikes)

3. Child's physical condition.

4. Child's responsibilities at home.

5. Teacher's report of child's achievement in school. (Folder of child's work.)

6. Teacher-Parent plans for the future.

7. Parent's attitude toward child's progress in school.

8. Teacher's comments and notations:

The location of the conference should be carefully determined. Generally, the pupil's classroom is the most satisfactory because the parent can readily see exhibits, projects in progress, and teaching materials. The teacher should sit away from his desk at a table, or stand.

Secure information before the parent's arrival. Review information on cumulative records, anecdotal records, plan sheets, and all other pertinent records. Samples of student's work should be at hand. Use written notes and questions as guides if necessary. Some schools prefer mimeographed guide sheets, a sample of which is shown on page 468.

Anticipate the parent's attitude and questions; e.g., How is Johnny doing? Will he be promoted? Does he talk too much? Do children just play in the first grade? Why don't they have more drill work? Forethought and planning will help establish that rapport which is so necessary in an interviewing situation. Knowing something about the home life of the parent, the language used at home, the interests and occupation of the parent—a knowledge of all these will assist in good communication.

## SPECIFIC INTERVIEWING TECHNIQUES

Training in interviewing and counseling techniques is essential for successful teacher-parent conferences. Complete mastery of the suggestions made in chapters 12, 13, and 14, would provide a good start. At the risk of some repetition an outline of specific suggestions is given as follows:

Responsibility for the success or failure of a conference rests primarily with the teacher. Success, however, is relative; and evaluation of the conference is made according to its own circumstances and results.

The teacher's greeting should be friendly and relaxed; he should not appear to be under pressure for time.

Permit the parent to do most of the talking; thus the teacher will do most of the listening. Teachers may help by restating or clarifying the subject-content of the parent's conversation. Praise the parent for reporting his thoughts and feelings accurately or direct the discussion to some topic which has been omitted.

The teacher should guard against being a giver of advice, a moralist, a judge, or an authoritarian. Parents do not seek advice; they seek support.

Permit the parent to talk about anything he wishes.

Guard against asking questions. You can get at the important issues by other techniques.

Note "emotionally-toned" words and phrases which may be a key to the parent's feelings and attitudes. When you make comments, speak in terms of the parent's feelings rather than in terms of what he has done or is doing. Ascertain how the parent is thinking and feeling about his child. The teacher cannot understand the child's behavior until he knows the parent's attitudes. If a parent says he is worried about his child's behavior, use this as a key to stimulate further conversation. Find out why he is worried.

Never argue with a parent; acceptance need not always mean approval, however. If a parent gives what he thinks is the reason for a child's behavior, accept it, and lead the discussion to the consideration of other possible causes. If a parent suggests a plan of action, accept it if at all possible to do so. It is better for the parent to try it than for the teacher to force one of his own. Try to get the parent to take the initiative. If the parent's plan fails, it is always possible to suggest alternatives that may be more successful.

If you offer suggestions do it in terms of alternatives.

If any decisions are made the parent should feel he has had a part in making them.

It is best to record mutual decisions; parents should be given one copy.

Use child's school work as a mean for informing parents about children in general.

Use care with negative phrases; e.g., "lack of experience" may be a better choice than "immaturity."

Do not be afraid of pauses in the conversation. The parent may be thinking or making decisions relating to his problems.

Facial expressions give clues to communications. Don't be disturbed over unexpected gestures, lack of handshakes or expected response.

Close the conference with a friendly note. Include future plans for parent and teacher if possible. Plans for further consultation, a definite date for the next conference, a statement of encouragement or reassurance, a statement of a plan for coöperative action, all are included in the closing features of a conference.

### A Systematic and Organized Plan of Evaluation Is Necessary

Committees of parents and teachers should work with the administrator to improve the effectiveness of teacher-parent conferences. These committees help to generate interest in the school program throughout the community, and parents will feel they are making a genuine contribution to education through their participation.

Several approaches may be suggested in planning evaluation of conferences. A question check list to be filled out by parents and teachers

The Teacher as Guide in the Learning Process

is helpful, or informal letters may be written evaluating conference techniques. The anecdotal system of recording incidental conversation by pupils, teachers, or parents is usually effective.

The teacher can evaluate her own conferences by thinking of appropriate answers to such specific questions as the following:

Is teacher-parent relationship a happy, normal one?

Was tenseness or anxiety present?

Does teacher fail to hear what parent has to say?

Does teacher pick up negative or positive aspects in parent's thinking?

Was there clear, sympathetic discussion of the child's development?

Did the conversation point to ways in which the child can improve?

Did you assure the parent that you liked the child?

Did the conference end on a friendly basis?

Does the parent have samples of the child's work?

Was a summary of the conference made and placed in the child's folder?

A written report which summarizes the conference in a concise manner is needed to supplement the parent-teacher conference. The report is filed in the child's permanent record folder and parts of it may be duplicated and given to the parent. Evaluation should be summarized in graphic form and supplemented with comments, parent's suggestions, teacher's recommendations.

## THE TEACHER USES THE LEARNING PROCESS TO IMPROVE HIS OWN EFFICIENCY AS A COUNSELOR

Work toward professional growth completed after accepting a position either on school time or on one's own time is generally described as in-service training. In-service education consists of those experiences, processes, procedures, and techniques which result in the personal, social, academic, and professional growth and, hence, in the improvement of the quality and effectiveness of the education program.

In-service training is a learning situation in which sound principles of learning should be considered just as they apply to the teaching of children in the classroom. When the training is directed toward more efficiency in guidance we can point out certain characteristics which will guarantee success. Briefly these characteristics may be stated as follows:

1. In-service training for effective teacher-guidance must be initiated as a result of a felt need on the part of the participants. This means that an

administrator who feels obligated to initiate a program himself will rarely be successful and his only means of evaluation will be in terms of number of meetings held and number of persons attending.

2. In-service training can proceed only as rapidly as the participants are prepared to go. An administrator cannot crowd his faculty regardless of the importance and urgency of the task at hand.

3. In-service training requires that all faculty members must be active participants in making decisions, in planning, and in putting the things learned into action.

4. In-service training programs should be flexible. Original plans may change in purpose and procedure as evaluations are properly made.

## What Are the Usual Forms of In-service Training?

Ideally the in-service program should be an outgrowth of the work in the community, school, and classroom, and it should include opportunities for many activities. Workshops; visitations; experimentation; travel; research; attendance at professional meetings; work on specific problems, projects, and experiments; and classes taken for credit in universities—these are the common instruments by which in-service training is accomplished. More specifically we may note the suggestions listed by Kindred (*14*) as activities of committee groups:

1. Simple, practical research projects that offer promise for the improvement of classroom teaching.

2. Repeating published research to determine where similar results are obtainable.

3. Experimenting with newer type programs after considerable study and planning.

4. Building staff meetings around a selected series of topics in which teachers have strong interest.

5. Working with parent groups on instructional problems of mutual concern.

6. Organizing a series of excursions for the study of community resources useful in classroom instruction.

7. Creating small study groups for the intensive investigation of real and immediate problems.

8. Establishing one or more committees to review current literature and supply pertinent digests to the staff.

9. Setting up a workshop for the study and solution of problems most in need of attention.

10. Asking key members to demonstrate methods and techniques when the staff is ready to profit from this type of observation.

11. Bringing in specialists or going to schools where specialists may be found who can demonstrate how a given procedure may be used in teaching.

12. Bringing in an outside specialist to give a tailor-made course for the local school.

13. Taking advantage of university courses within commuting distance that are related to the in-service program.

14. Training a few key teachers to work with volunteers on special projects.

15. Freeing teachers for full- or part-time work on curricular reorganization work.

16. Encouraging teachers to take a more active part in worthwhile community affairs.

17. Having teachers give courses under board direction in subjects and hobbies for which they have special competencies.

18. Providing recreational opportunities after school hours for teachers to enjoy free time and become better acquainted.

### Guidance of the New Teacher

A program for the orientation and guidance of new teachers should provide a feeling of security and confidence, a sense of pride in being a member of the teaching profession, and an opportunity to develop potentialities. Assigning the new teacher to an older staff member for purposes of getting acquainted; personal conferences with the administrator; appointments on committees; offering the new teacher time to attend professional conferences, visit other classes and schools, and participate in staff social and recreational activities—these are common methods of orienting the new teacher.

### In-service Training Requires Superior Leadership

Leadership for in-service training requires the ability to create situations in which the leader passes his authority from himself to members of the staff. Giving the staff opportunities to make decisions, to experiment with new ideas, to apply new findings based on research, to make new policies, to plan new programs—these are the elements of democratic leadership. The more the leader can involve teachers in worth-while activities related to the guidance program, the more he can use the group approach for the solution of common problems, the more he can provide opportunity for sharing ideas and information, the greater will be the chances of building an excellent program of guidance.

## SUMMARY

In chapter 2 the role of the teacher in the total guidance program was described. In one sense this chapter has been an elaboration of that discussion but with specific emphasis on the teacher as the guide in the learning process. Intelligent guidance by the teacher requires essential understandings of children and their needs. Guidance of learning pertains to the curriculum areas such as communicative arts, quantitative thinking, scientific thinking, and social learning. The common feature of guidance in subject matter is that of a standardized sequence of thinking under the heading of objectives, methods of determining the degree of achieving these objectives, the factors associated with faulty learning, techniques for locating factors interfering with successful learning, and suggestions for overcoming faults revealed by diagnosis.

By means of information provided by the guidance program the teacher is helped to understand his pupils and is enabled to provide meaningful learning experiences in his teaching. Furthermore, a guidance program will usually take care of those problems of maladjustment which are beyond the diagnostic and therapeutic skill of the teacher. In classroom learning there are students who do not have clearly established objectives, thus making it necessary for the teachers to assist in making choices and choosing goals. The aim of every teacher should be to stimulate new interests, to encourage worth-while preferences and to assist youth to analyze and solve their problems adequately.

The guidance program should assist the teacher to get information about the individual. The resources listed from which a teacher may obtain information are: the cumulative record, the faculty meeting, committee reports, teachers' manuals, guidance bulletins, case conferences, home visitations, and the pupils' plan sheet.

Considerable attention has been given to the teacher-parent conference. This was discussed under the topics of: the teacher's responsibility for good public relations; the teacher-parent conference in the educational program; kinds of teacher-parent conferences; mechanical aspects of the conference; techniques of teacher-parent conference procedure; and a systematic and organized plan of evaluation.

The teacher can use the learning process to improve his own efficiency in the role of counselor. This objective is best realized by carefully planned in-service training. An efficient leader of in-service training can

promote teacher efficiency by giving the teacher an opportunity to make decisions, to experiment with new ideas, and to apply new findings based on research.

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# CHAPTER 18

## Improving Human Relations

### THE IMPORTANCE OF IMPROVING HUMAN RELATIONS

MAN is a social animal who cannot survive for any length of time without others of his kind, yet if he is to survive without the weak being subservient to the strong it will be necessary through a collective effort to establish proper human relations upon a stable and enduring basis of mutual respect. Human freedom and security depend upon basic justice and democratic coöperation. Human relations are concerned with those concepts, attitudes, understandings, and practices which are a part of one's feelings and actions toward people in an interpersonal or intergroup situation. Because they will be citizens of our democracy tomorrow, children must learn at a very young age how to live together effectively. Attitudes of aloofness; frigid, faulty cliques; and feelings of personal superiority should be subordinated to friendliness, coöperation, and appreciation of others.

Although the existence of cultural and ethnic group differences adds to the personal difficulties of people, problems of human relations are not confined to such groups. Misunderstandings between parents and children or between siblings cause problems of equal seriousness. Understanding between parents and children is difficult because it involves bridging a generation. If the experiences and environment of these two generations differ dramatically, the difficulties in reciprocal understanding may be even more marked. For example, if a parent immigrated to

America as an adult and his child, a second-generation American, knows only one culture pattern and environment, problems in loyalties and values may widen the gap between them.

Wherever people gather there will always be sorting and rearranging and group forces acting as powerful factors in adjustment or maladjustment of personalities. It is in the group that the individual acquires his security, his sense of worthiness, and his system of values. Of greatest influence is the family group in which the primitive values, attitudes, and beliefs are molded. Each family, for example, has a notion about its own social position which is conveyed to the young. The members of one family may be decidedly uncomfortable in the presence of another family.

It is the family, too, which controls the initial steps of social expansion when children move outward into the neighborhood environs. Many parents who have learned to recognize the values of individual differences within the family are unable to adapt this principle on the interfamily plane. Children are permitted to play with children only of approved families selected because of race, religion, income, occupation, or mere manners. Further social pressures conveyed to the child by his parents are concepts of popularity, getting along with others, "acting like a gentleman," and so on.

## THE OBJECTIVES OF GUIDANCE IN HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS

The objectives of guidance in the improvement of human relations are to assist the student:

1. To reflect sensitivity to human feelings and needs.
2. To get along well with people.
3. To give and take suggestions graciously.
4. To participate in constructive activities involving the improvement of the community and the nation.
5. To be objective in dealing with people.
6. To reflect compassion for the human problems which are evident in man's struggle for security, recognition, and peace.
7. To reflect the initiative, integrity, and warmth of personality which lend themselves to wholesome group living.
8. To use his academic background for the advancement of his spiritual, vocational, and recreational pursuits.
9. To learn to recognize the uniqueness of individuals and to feel secure about oneself.

## THE TEACHER'S ROLE IN THE CLASS GROUP

The results of controlled social-emotional climate have demonstrated that it is possible to modify pupil attitude and behavior through guided social experience. The classroom is a miniature society wherein many social forces are at work in developing leaders, in isolating the unpopular, and in developing or disintegrating cliques. The home and neighborhood may have far greater impact on the emotional life than does the schoolroom; nevertheless, the teacher can develop in his classroom a type of atmosphere or social climate of significant influence. The series of studies by Lewin, Lippitt, and White (*21:23*), indicate that individual social behavior is determined by the prevailing teacher-pupil relationships.

In one of these studies four clubs of five boys each were organized. During three consecutive six-week periods each group was given in rotation an autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire leader. The authoritarian leader purposely determined policies, outlined detailed consecutive steps for every problem, and chose the companions for work assignments. He refused to associate with any member and attempted to be impersonal in praise and direct in criticism.

The democratic leader encouraged and assisted the members of the group to make their own plans by group discussion. The group chose definite objectives, and the members were given freedom to suggest how these objectives were to be accomplished. Each boy could choose his own work companion. The leader tried to participate as an active member of the group.

Leadership in the laissez-faire group was held at a minimum. Materials were supplied and questions were answered only when information was requested. As nearly as possible the leader remained a spectator and the individuals in the group were free to act as they chose.

Interpretations were made from records of social interaction between group members and leader, stenographic records of conversations in each club, analyses of activity in sub-groupings, and a running account of interaction in each group. The different leadership styles produced different group and individual behavior. Groups organized on a democratic basis engaged in self- and group-sustained activies directed toward individual and group objectives.

Autocratic leadership elicited either aggressive rebellion against the leader or an apathetic submission to him. Members within the *laissez-*

faire group became dissatisfied with uncertainty and confusion and lack of efficiency.

This basic and oft-quoted experiment provides evidence that a leader or a teacher can control social climate and atmosphere in a classroom. Everything the teacher does or says will have some significance whether it be facial expression, tone of voice, sitting at a desk, or reading a book. The influence of verbal statements made by teachers were classified into the following seven categories:

1. Learner-supportive statements that have the interest of reassuring or commending the pupil.
2. Acceptant and clarifying statements used to convey to the pupil the feeling that he was understood or to help him elucidate his ideas and feelings.
3. Problem-structuring statements or questions which proffer information or raise questions about the problem in an objective manner with intent to facilitate the learner's problem-solving.
4. Neutral statements which comprise polite formalities, administrative comments, verbatim repetition of something that has already been said. No intent inferable.
5. Directive or authoritative statements with intent to have a pupil adopt a recommended course of action.
6. Reproving or deprecating remarks intended to deter a pupil from continued indulgence in present "unacceptable" behavior.
7. Teacher self-supporting remarks intended to sustain or justify the teacher's position or course of action.

Pupils react to a teacher with the type of behavior they have experienced. Eventually a neurotic teacher will have neurotic pupils; force will be met with force; kindness with kindness; and coöperation with coöperation.

In the traditional classroom where children sit in rows looking at the backs of those ahead of them, where hands must be raised before permission is given to speak, where pupils respond only when spoken to by the teacher, communication between class members is usually restricted. The social climate is clearly one of authority and subservience. On the other hand, when students sit in a circle, around a table, or in small groups, they can learn to participate, exchange opinions, address one another, and thus to grow in their ability to observe the rules of courteousness in conversation—in short, to become good citizens in a

social atmosphere. Untrained children lack the skills necessary for non-teacher-controlled permissive communication, and every teacher should strive continuously to assist pupils to grow in self-control. Those extreme cases requiring constant control by the teacher are the same cases which make trouble in home and community. For such cases guidance is essential.

## SOCIAL STRUCTURE IN THE CLASSROOM

Social climate or atmosphere is very closely associated with that relationship among members of a group commonly described as social structure. Who in the group, for example, are ignored or rejected in their play, work, or other social activities? Who are the chums? The leaders? The isolates? Are there any cliques? What are the relationships between boys and girls? The answer to these questions can be partially obtained by the sociometric test when the data are summarized in the form of a sociogram. These were described in chapter 11. The *general character of social structure, however, needs more elaboration.* In addition to other values, knowledge of the social structure in a classroom aids the teacher to find leaders who will help carry out committee plans and projects. Within the classroom there are always some children who are secure and happy; while others are rejected and frustrated in their social participation.

*The "isolate":* The individual who receives no choices for being a friend or an associate is described as an isolate. An unpopular child deserves extra attention, guidance, and help in socialization. Because children are more reluctant to be honest in their reasons for rejection than they are in reasons for acceptance, subtle techniques are required to discover why children are rejected by their peers. "He doesn't speak to me," "He thinks he is better than anyone else," "She doesn't play fairly," "No one likes her"—these are *typical remarks given as reasons* for rejection. Isolated children usually suffer from frustration and strive to adjust through rebellion, truancy, reticence, and defiance against all adult authority. Many children are isolated because of environmental and cultural impoverishment which has prevented them from learning certain social skills or conformities. Frequent causes are excessive mobility of the family, belonging to a racial or religious minority group, poor economic status, having a mental or physical handicap, and unsatisfactory family relationships.

*The leader:* Having followers, the leader must be accepted rather than rejected as an associate. Typically, the leader is one who can see beyond his own personal needs to the needs of his followers. Throughout an individual's lifetime the picture of dominance and leadership is one of much change, depending largely upon the chronological age and activities engaged in. Any type of moral or religious education which places great emphasis upon docility, quiescence, or submission to authority may be a handicap to a child's social acceptance. The syndrome of the popular child may be described as strong, aggressive, enthusiastic, active in recitation, pleasing in appearance, cheerful in disposition, frequent in laughter, and friendly in attitude. The essence of effective group guidance is to arrange situations in which an isolate may actually exercise leadership according to a democratic rather than an authoritative role. An ideal leader is one who can preserve the right of every member to present his resentments, his disagreements, his confusions, and his difficulties, and yet respect the rights of others in the same manner.

*Mutual friendships:* A study of chum relationships shows that the pair is generally of the same sex and approximate chronological age, likely to be in the same school and school group, from the same neighborhood and the same socio-economic status. Similarity of interests and coördination of traits are apparently essential. Mutual friends are more frequent during middle and later childhood, and at this age the relationship is usually worth-while because each person gains in confidence, adaptability, and resourcefulness.

It is encouraging to note that attempts to train children in skills needed to work in groups and to manage themselves and others in group situations have been at least partially successful (45). The results of sociometric tests should serve as a basis for planning classroom guidance to improve social structure.

## Guidance Techniques for Improving Human Relations

As pointed out by Cook (4) modern educational methods in intergroup relations are becoming more resourceful and imaginative. Of the numerous classifications of teaching devices only a few can be briefly described here. However, the interested reader will find references in the bibliography most helpful for further study. The common devices are:

1. The informational approach, imparting knowledge by lectures and text-book teaching.
2. The "vicarious experience approach" in the form of motion pictures, television, radio, dramas, fiction, and other devices that invite the student to identify with members of an out-group.
3. The "small group process" which applies many principles of group dynamics, including discussion, sociodrama, and group retraining.
4. The "community study-action approach" calls for field trips, area surveys, and work in social agencies or community programs.
5. "Exhibits, festivals, and pageants" encourage a sympathetic regard for the customs of minority groups and our Old World heritage.
6. The "individual conference" where therapeutic or advisory interviewing is employed.

## The Necessity for Teaching Skills in Social Living

A sound educational program in which growth in human values and experiences in intergroup activities are inherent must be carefully planned if human relations are to be improved. The program should include more than the acquisition of facts, information, and data. A knowledge of George Washington Carver and his scientific contributions, for example, provides no guarantee against a white child's prejudice against Negroes. Neither will it be sufficient to use exhortation, directed observation, or critical introspection and hope that the student's behavior toward people of racial, national, or religious differences will be modified. Well-educated people may be considerably more correct than less-educated people in their factual statements regarding the Negro, but only slightly more favorable in their attitudes. Improvement may be expected only after a change is made from the traditional book-centered approach to an approach of actual participation. Motive (closely associated with interest), attitude, belief, and habit are all constituent elements of moral behavior; and in the field of intergroup relations these elements must be developed through guided personal experience.

### THE VICARIOUS EXPERIENCE APPROACH

Identification at the fantasy level through listening to the radio, viewing motion pictures or television, or reading dramatic and narrative literature is an indirect approach to change attitudes through vicarious experience. Although we have evidence that viewing a single

motion picture may cause a lasting change in attitude, several related programs will produce even more significant effects (*33*). Repetition has long been one of the principles of effective advertising and propaganda.

Unfortunately, the change of attitude resulting from viewing a motion picture apparently has little transfer value. What is learned in one context does not carry over to another (*39*). An investigation of training films used by the United States Army in wartime produced evidence that while films did change opinions to some degree "These changed opinions were nearly all closely related to material specifically covered by the film (*15*)."

### Studying the Dynamics of Group Action

Although a study of group dynamics is considered in more detail in chapter 20, something should be said here about its use in improving human relations. Students, older students especially, can recognize the common forces which hold small groups together in social systems. Within this framework, questions of leadership and authority will become a dominating theme along with such questions as, "How can we be a follower without being servile?" and "How can we be a leader without being despotic?"

A study of a group in action has potential value for teaching democratic skills. Techniques for studying group dynamics are becoming increasingly numerous and cannot be dealt with adequately in a textbook such as this. Some of the more useful methods which have been tried and found helpful, however, may be described briefly.

1. In-group observers. Arrange for each student of the group to observe difficulties which arise in group planning and the ways in which these difficulties are resolved. At the end of the working period, the group may discuss each person's observations.

2. Out-group observers. A non-committee (or group) member may watch for elements which block progress and for elements which permit progress. These may be discussed by the committee group or by the class as a whole.

3. Self-observation. Each student may be taught to be aware of his own role in group work. It is convenient, for example, at the end of the work period for the student to fill out an evaluation blank as a record of changing concepts and skills. These blanks may be used as a basis of class discussion.

An example of such a form is presented below:

## SELF-EVALUATION IN GROUP PARTICIPATION

*Instructions:* Check those items which best describe yourself as a group member.

|  | Frequently | About Average | Rarely |
|---|---|---|---|
| Expressed ideas ................ | ........ | ........ | ........ |
| Agreed with the group ........... | ........ | ........ | ........ |
| Shared equally with others ....... | ........ | ........ | ........ |
| Lead the group ................. | ........ | ........ | ........ |
| Your contribution to the day's work | ........ | ........ | ........ |
| Need to change .............. | ........ | ........ | ........ |
| Improving ................... | ........ | ........ | ........ |
| Adequate ................... | ........ | ........ | ........ |
| Equal to others .............. | ........ | ........ | ........ |

A discussion of observation is in itself worth while and can be centered around such a question as this, "How does one observe one's fellow men?" A common tendency is to create stereotyped classifications on the basis of inadequate information. These classifications contain hidden assumptions about what is good and bad in terms of our own past experience and current needs. An untrained observer generally sees what he expects and wants to see. Training increases tolerance in the interpretation of what is observed, but tolerance does not mean an undermining of one's own beliefs. One need not insist that his values are right for everybody in order to feel securely that they are right for himself. Observing another human being involves a complicated process of looking inward as well as outward.

## DISCUSSION TECHNIQUES ✓

Discussion has long been and will probably continue to be the primary medium for communication among group members. As described here, discussion shares many characteristics with the non-directive type of counseling. As a discussion leader, the teacher makes it clear that everyone in the group is free to talk but that he will have to take his own initiative in doing so. The teacher sets the limits within which the discussion takes place. Above all, the teacher does not force his ideas upon the group. His role should be primarily to clarify statements, to make explicit the unstated premises behind different statements, to

relate statements to those made earlier, to point out contradictions, and to make frequent summarizations.

Uncontrolled and permissive discussion within a group will at first be led by the loquacious student. Intellectual skills and an ability to verbalize easily, however, do not necessarily correlate highly. Frequently the bright student must be helped to make his points clear to the group and the dull student must not be discouraged.

With continued practice in permissive group discussion, leaders arise naturally and collect an active group of followers. Students begin to expect one another to maintain certain consistent points of view, and they address their remarks to one another in terms of such expectations. The goal of the teacher should be to assist the group to learn and to apply a specific body of knowledge. In other words, he helps the group to understand certain useful concepts.

Permissive discussion frequently reflects an observable degree of group unity among the participants. Occasionally sub-groups within the larger group appear; sometimes one sub-group dominates, and frequently the membership is divided into pairs and individuals independent of one another. In some groups sharing of ideas and points of view runs smoothly, but in other groups incompatible cliques make progress very slow.

The democratic ideals of free speech and equal rights for all people are occasionally given as excuses for apparent or real lack of courtesy. Important techniques and concepts regarding courtesy which enable people to live happily together can be effectively taught in the schools. Besides attitudes which permanently influence behavior, fundamental habits of conduct can be established most efficiently during the early school years. Rules of courtesy appropriate for young children are: learning to say "please," "thank you," and "excuse me," or to get chairs for visitors who come to the home or the school. At upper elementary grade levels the different roles of the man and woman, the young and the aged, the healthy and the handicapped, should be introduced, discussed, and understood. Appropriate for this age are such discussion topics as: gossip and its undesirable effects, punctuality at social affairs, consideration for the sensitivities of other people.

Because of its advantage of wide participation an increasingly frequent type of discussion is the "buzz session." In a buzz session small groups of people who happen to be sitting near each other "talk the problem over" for a few minutes. There is little need for uniformity

of size. Each individual hears the other person's point of view. Usually about five minutes or so is allowed for buzzing, and in this time each member of the group hears many ideas. When the buzz session is over the ideas, questions, or reactions that are generated in the small groups are pooled. One person, selected by the group, speaks up for the whole group.

Buzz sessions have the advantage of stimulating large numbers of people to think, of serving as a basis for further discussion, and of orienting individuals so they may feel free to respond in a larger group.

The panel is another widely used discussion technique. This brings together people who have differing points of view regarding a question meriting discussion. The panel is well suited to clear-cut differences of opinion where participants speak extemporaneously, where disagreements can be expressed, where needs for further research become evident. Buzz sessions are usually successful following a panel discussion.

## COÖPERATIVE GAMES

Desirable character development has long been a stated objective in group game participation. Supposedly the individual learns to sacrifice personal ambition for the good of the team. If desirable objectives are to be accomplished, however, proper guidance by a leader or teacher is essential. In the first place, emphasis on the individual score must be sublimated to emphasis on the group score. This requires minimum emphasis on individual skill and maximum emphasis on a concern that the whole group gains both pleasure and achievement. Games of an individual competitive nature result in efforts "to be best," "to be first," "to be on top," in short to satisfy a need of personal recognition at the expense of another's shortcomings. Coöperative games encourage a common goal for all players and a change of expression from, "I won" to "we won." The coöperative game is a specific example of organizing learning activities to foster desirable group feeling.

## THE WORK GROUP ✓

Informal arrangements for work such as committees, panels, or special-interest groups provide appropriate situations for students to plan and work together. It is well to recognize, however, that group procedures, like any other classroom method, are useful for some—but not all—kinds of learning. It is just as necessary for individuals to learn to work alone, think alone, and make independent decisions as it is for

them to work with a group. The overprotected child is readily recognized as an individual who can make no decision on his own.

The educator has long recognized that the relationships within a group involving feelings of acceptance or rejection materially affect the kind of learning which occurs. At an early age children become aware of meaningful group differences. Intergroup understanding and the acceptance of oneself as a member of an identified social group can be developed through rich opportunities to live and work with others in small groups.

THE ABILITY GROUP [1]

This is well illustrated in the first grade where groups are formed according to reading readiness. Studies in reading readiness indicate that many normal children will lag several months or even a whole year behind their age-mates in learning to read. It is well to remember, however, that the composition of a group is as important as the learning goal in skills. Grouping children on an ability level for reading is useful for only some kinds of reading instruction. Groups should be frequently organized according to interests, e.g., in airplanes, kittens, dogs or family life.

Grouping on the ability level for direct instruction in such skill-subjects as reading and arithmetic is desirable, but the teacher should not ignore the dynamics that occur among the children who make up a given group. Care must be used in organizing such groups that individuals will not be permanently branded as bright or dull. For most of the work-group activities the teacher should plan bases other than ability.

A typical work-group found in the classroom is the small group formed upon the basis of mutual interests. The sharing of interests and experiences in everyday activities provide an excellent basis for interchange and mutual acceptance. Grambs (*11*) offers the following convenient example of an interest group.

talk about the problem. As they talked some important facts emerged; that there were distinct splits in the class according to ethnic and religious groups. It became evident that the sub-groups that existed neither liked nor trusted each other. The teacher helped the class define a problem for study that involved a consideration of how people in this town used their leisure time. He carefully set up committees that involved not only students with similar interests but that cut across social group lines. As the groups went to work on their various assignments—some interviewing proprietors of local amusement places, others talking to town officials, others preparing and administering a questionnaire among high school classmates —the teacher observed some new attitudes developing. By the time the study was over the teacher felt that these students had learned some new lessons about working with others, and he spent several periods in making explicit the lessons in intergroup education that they had learned—along with important lessons on leisure-time use.

The unit-of-work approach provides a good structure for content in which group procedures become a natural consequence of the approach to a curriculum area. How pupils participate in planning the unit, the way pupils companions are selected, the kinds of materials used, all contribute to feelings which either increase security or induce insecurities and hostilities. Note the example of a simple unit given below to illustrate how the pupils' own experiences and interests are used as the main source of learning.

### What Our Daddies Do

*Objectives:*

1. To get information about the pupils.
2. To get a representative sampling of occupations from which to select areas of work to study as examples of community helpers.
3. To make the study of community helpers real to pupils.
4. To build prestige for occupations that are generally not regarded highly.
5. To enable pupils to see more clearly the interrelationship between different kinds of work and the effects of each type of work on the lives of the workers and their families.

*Introductory activities:* (The approach)

1. Each pupil writes of his father's occupation.
2. Each pupil writes or tells about his father's work.
   Examples from one class that worked on this unit.
   (a) "My daddy is a working man. He works at Welch Photo. Sometimes I go to see the girls in the dark room. They make the pictures

in the dark room. It is fun to watch them. He comes home for dinner. Susan is sitting in her high chair when we are eating dinner. Susan always acts silly at the table."

(b) "My daddy is a salesman. He sells welding. He is in New York now. He eats in a restaurant. He doesn't like the coffee. He will be home at the end of the month. I like that. My sister likes that too."

(c) "My daddy is a milkman. He gives milk to people when I am in school."

3. When stories are read in class questions are encouraged concerning daddies' work in order to lead them to make whatever generalizations they can.

4. Children write and tell stories about where their fathers work, what time they get home, what they do when they get home.

5. The pupils print stories on large sheets of paper and add drawings to show what their fathers do at work.

(a) Read these posters to class-group.

6. They list other kinds of work they know about to extend and give perspective to what they have learned about fathers' work.

*Possible outcomes:*

1. Children are helped to make generalizations; e.g., all fathers work, and usually at different jobs; most fathers carry a lunch; most fathers go to work in the morning before their children get up; most fathers like to play with their children.

2. Children learn to exercise logic and application of information, e.g., what happens if father is late to work?

3. Children learn that people follow different patterns of living.

4. Children become acquainted with the ways work patterns affect living patterns in families.

The unit of work should be more than a vehicle for subject matter learning. Pupils must get involved in the process by planning, doing, and evaluating. If the unit of work can engage the pupil in a process of democratic group participation in activities, he can then appreciate the importance of people other than himself. A successful unit of work should lead the pupil to glimpse the feelings, the aspirations, and the troubles of people who are different from him.

### HOW LARGE SHOULD A WORK GROUP BE?

Regardless of what the classroom teacher does, a child is always a group member. He may be a part of a classroom group, a playground

group, a neighborhood group, or a scout group. A network of friendships or rivalries surround the child every day and exert a powerful influence on what he does or does not learn. Although in one sense the classroom houses a group of pupils, actually many of the pupils will not be identified with the class or at most will be on the periphery. The typical class-group unit is a small society divided into many sub-units. The personnel in the classroom do not constitute a genuine group except for short periods of time when it is successfully solving a common problem through the efforts of the sub-groups within it.

There are limits to the size of groups children at different age levels can manage adequately and in which they can feel comfortable. Groups of kindergarten and pre-primary children are constantly changing in composition. Stability of group structure is determined largely by the social maturity of the individuals. Socially immature individuals like to be alone, the more socially able tend to group themselves together. Proper guidance in planning the use of toys and materials as well as planning shared activities can accomplish a great deal in supporting group cohesion. With young children, pupil-teacher planning can be most successful with groups of three to six pupils.

In the primary grades any group should be small enough so that the teacher can be responsive to each individual therein. On the average the maximum group should contain not more than twelve pupils. After a series of experiences in small group endeavors the child is able to develop insight into group activities, especially if the teacher has guided discussion into what helps groups to work together and what makes it difficult. Round tables for group discussion, movable chairs for small group gatherings, interest centers of stimulating materials, construction areas, and finally areas for dramatic play are all necessary for efficient group activity.

In the upper elementary grades, children are not only able to work in larger groups but at the same time they are also able to remain in group work for a longer period of time. At this level the teacher should also rely upon the dominant power of peer group approval and acceptance. At this level a network of relationships between groups become apparent. In other words, small groups learn to work coöperatively with other groups.

In the junior and senior high schools the student should be able to do more independent thinking. The individual should, therefore, be able to contribute to the committee type of work group. This group should

be able to operate independently without constant teacher guidance and supervision. While the size of the committee should be flexible, even at this age it cannot be too large. A successful group procedure in the junior and senior high school is the "buzz session." Inasmuch as this type of group work has been described under the topic of "discussion method," we refer to it here only in terms of "size of group." It has been found that with high school classes a group of four or five students is most effective. The natural seating in a classroom usually provides a good nucleus for a group.

For long-term committee projects the size of the group will be determined largely by the problem and the ability of the members. Size of the group should vary according to how easily students enter into interrelations. The more difficult this is for group members, the smaller the size of the group should be.

## THE SOCIOMETRIC PROCEDURE FOR SELECTING GROUPS

. Although attention has already been directed to sociometric procedures we must refer specifically to sociometric groups. A typical sociometric test question, "With whom would you like to work in the weekly composition groups?" provides data for organizing new groups for smooth and effective accomplishment. Sociometric procedures enable the teacher to introduce students among the groups which have closed formations; to assign isolated students so that not more than two will be in each working group; to place a few frequently chosen students and about the same number of unchosen individuals in the same group; and to place in a group at least as many students of average sociometric position as of these other two types combined. Sociometric procedure can aid the teacher to organize work groups in which social interaction can flourish. Students can become skilled in the process of group decision, in the exercise of coöperation and tolerance, and in their acceptance of different personalities and cultural milieu.

## SOCIODRAMA [2]

Sociodrama, or role-playing, is an excellent device for solving problems involving relationships among individuals. The problems with which the sociodrama deals must be crucial in the life situations of the boys and girls participating. Inasmuch as it permits an individual to

[2] The techniques of sociodrama are described in chapter 20.

understand how it feels to be rejected, mistreated, accused unjustly, or persecuted, role-playing can result in deepened sensitivity and insight. Sociodrama can aid children to solve their own problems and make their own decisions despite an atmosphere of criticism, suggestion, and difference of opinion. Typical problems of the family, neighborhood, or playground can be introduced into the classroom to be resolved with the help of the group.

Success of the sociodrama is dependent on the wise selection of problems plus skillful guidance by the teacher (director). The basic problem of the story must be very meaningful to the group or the whole procedure will lack conviction. The actual problems of young people can be considered in terms of Havighurst's (13) classification of developmental tasks. These tasks can be selected from socially approved and disapproved behavior. Each task is termed "developmental" because it is a *crucial step in one's growth as a person.*

Note the developmental tasks of the early and late adolescent:

### EARLY ADOLESCENCE: AGES 12–14

Adjusting to changing body.
Recognizing the new definition of boy-girl relations.
Learning about one's growth pattern and accepting any personal deviation from the ideal type.
Moving from neighborhood gang to friendship group based on mutual interests.
Learning the social definitions of who may or may not be potential friends.
Being able to balance adequately the demands of parents and the pressures of the peer group.

### LATE ADOLESCENCE: AGES 15–18

Learning skills in boy-girl relationships in social situations.
Learning which group values to accept and which to reject.
Learning the social hierarchy of the community.
Acquiring a clear concept of social role and social status of one's own family and group.
Learning what rules of social conduct and personal behavior apply in what situation.

Problem situations selected from these developmental tasks will be appropriate for sociodramatic episodes. Elementary and high school youngsters will learn how to deal with their emotional problems under

permissive teacher-guidance including the support and opposition of age-mates. Sociodrama provides a unique learning situation for the teacher, the group, and the individual.

### Improving Human Relations Through School-Community Coöperation

Projects involving school and community coöperation can result in improved conditions that affect children's lives and learning. A beginning may be made, for example, with a study of the school community. What are the ethnic and racial groups? Do the groups tend to live closely together? With whom do children play during out-of-school hours? Such studies have reciprocal benefits to the pupil and the school. Teachers, for example, can discover the needs of children through interviews with both pupils and parents about out-of-school activities, their playmates, their feelings toward themselves and others, and their most desired activities and personal relations.

Community resources provide an excellent area for the improvement of human relations. An outside speaker or demonstrator, for example, may appear before a school group. Such a person may be a rabbi, priest, clergyman, Negro scientist, artist, educator, Nisei, Hindu, Chinese scholar, plumber, waitress, or entertainer. Participation in community folk festivals will increase appreciation of the art, dances, music, and historical traditions of foreign cultures. Through the excursion, film material, literature, television, and radio, it is important that the wide range of conditions under which men live be made known to all.

Any type of coöperative group activity organized and undertaken to achieve an objective of human welfare is likely to improve human relations. Such an activity will be especially beneficial if the project includes people of different religious, racial, ethnic, and economic backgrounds. An example from Olsen (28) serves well as an illustration.

don't need. It's broken some, but I think it could be fixed. Do you suppose the hospital kids would like it?" To make the story short, that class led a schoolwide service project which, in six weeks, collected, repaired, painted and gave to the children's hospital some 15,000 toys. That very process of coöperative endeavor on the basis of equal status did much to reduce previous prejudices.

Data essential to either comprehension or improvement of local human relationships can be discovered in community surveys. Surveys of civil rights, for example, may disclose covert if not open racial and religious discriminations in housing, employment, recreation, education, and medical care. A survey of community helpers provides an excellent approach to a study on different patterns of work, and the effect these various patterns have on ways of living. The study of a community will aid students to see how people live together and are related to one another.

Many children from minority groups in segregated neighborhoods must depend on the school to teach them community life and democratic government. They need to become aware of the larger community and what it offers them in facilities and recreation. Vocational opportunities and community institutions can profitably be studied by junior and senior high school students.

Newcomers from rural communities need to learn about city geography, to discover what the community offers them, and to develop a feeling of community participation. In order to help either rural or urban children surveys of available jobs, how to go about securing and holding jobs, and how to maintain desirable relationships with employers are being conducted periodically.

## SUMMARY

Democracy implies that while every individual is unique and entitled to respect, optimum development cannot take place in isolation. Although individuals are interdependent, increased opportunities for abundant living occur because of organization and coöperation with others. Human relations are vital to groups differing in cultural, racial, and religious factors, and to parents and children or to siblings within the family. Wherever people gather there will be sorting and rearranging and forces acting as powerful factors in adjustment or maladjustment of personalities.

The objectives of guidance in the improvement of human relations

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are to assist the student: (1) to reflect sensitivity to human feelings and needs; (2) to get along well with people; (3) to give and take suggestions graciously; (4) to participate in constructive activities involving the improvement of the community and the nation; (5) to be objective in dealing with people; (6) to reflect compassion for the human problems evident in man's struggle for security, recognition, and peace; (7) to reflect the initiative, integrity, and warmth of personality which lend themselves to wholesome family living; (8) to use his academic background for the advancement of his spiritual, vocational, and recreational pursuits; and (9) to learn to recognize the uniqueness of people and to feel secure about oneself.

The attitudes, skills, and behavior of the classroom teacher can exert great influence in establishing an autocratic, laissez-faire, or democratic climate. Pupils react to a teacher with the type of behavior he himself has adopted. It is assumed that with proper guidance students can learn to participate, to exchange opinions, to address one another, and thus to grow in their ability to observe the rules of courtesy—in short, to become good citizens in a social atmosphere.

Classroom social structure refers to the regard pupils have for one another. Three types of individuals were described: the isolate, whom no one chooses for an associate; the leader, whom many prefer for an associate; and the chum or mutual friend. In addition to other values, knowledge of the social structure in a classroom helps the teacher to find leaders who will help with committee plans and projects.

A sound educational program in which growth in human values and experiences in intergroup activities are inherent must be carefully planned if human relations are to be improved. Motive (closely associated with interest), attitude, belief, and habit are all constituent elements of moral behavior; in the field of intergroup relations they must be developed through guided personal experience. Several types of experience were described as potential determinants of social adjustment. These were: the vicarious experience approach; studying the dynamics of group action; discussion techniques; coöperative games; the work group; the ability group; sociodrama; and school-community projects.

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# Group Procedures of the Guidance Program

## CHANGING CONCEPTS, DEFINITION, AND PURPOSES

HAD this chapter been written a decade ago it would have doubtless been titled, "Group Guidance." Failure to agree about its definition has resulted in this phrase being currently unacceptable. The older and universally accepted concept of group guidance was one of a supervisory or administrative nature wherein extracurricular activities constituted the center of the program. Such activities were not considered a part of the academic curriculum and were, therefore, lumped together in a guidance program. Fortunately, we can now observe a trend toward making the traditional extracurricular program a part of the curriculum itself. Nothing is "extra" if it contributes toward the accomplishment of worthy educational objectives. Another trend is to consider any activity which affects the emotions, attitudes, interests, and beliefs of a student as meriting consideration in the "guidance program." Any type of organized group service by which students gain needed experiences for intelligent personal planning and adjustment may properly be considered a guidance service.

Although an organized group of students having the same problem presents an economical means of saving time and money, neither economy nor administration facility should be the sole objective. Group procedures have advantages in accomplishing objectives which can never be accomplished in client-counselor interviews. In other words, achievement in self-direction cannot be entirely realized in individual counseling. Group procedures provide the social contact and intercourse so essential for developing social sensitivity and coöperative attitudes.

The group situation, however, should never permanently submerge the individual to group dominance. Guidance is equally applicable to the individual alone or as a member of the group.

The values of group procedures in the guidance program may be divided under the headings of developmental, diagnostic, and therapeutic. Included in the developmental values is the building of good social habits such as responsibility, initiative, self-reliance, and honesty as well as the ability to get along peaceably and happily with others. Group procedure should assist the student to acquire attitudes of tolerance, respect, sympathy, and good will toward all races, classes, and nations.

Diagnostic values are illustrated in the laboratory group described on subsequent pages; the individual takes and discusses the results of tests in a group or social setting. By careful observation of the child in a group the guidance worker can diagnose causes and effects of maladjustment and occasionally lead the pupil to recognize them also.

Therapeutically, guidance in group procedures can contribute to social adjustment. The timid and submissive, for example, find situations in which these liabilities can be removed. The student can learn to think of himself in terms of what others think of him. Group procedures in guidance should assist one to feel accepted, needed, liked, and helpful in a group. He should be helped to decrease actions of aggressiveness, hostility, egocentricity, and lack of consideration of others. If he finds himself a member of a group facing the same problem—stuttering, for instance—he knows he will get sympathetic and understanding attention, and he finds it easier to release tension through verbalizing his fears and anxieties.

The advantages of group procedures for inculcating democratic ideals has been extensively considered in preceding chapters. Nevertheless the opportunity for continued training in democracy in the procedures described in this chapter should not be overlooked. In these procedures students will discover the superiority of coöperation and group effort over selfishness and personal ambition. It is democratic to meet with a group working, thinking, and achieving together on some common problem. It is the group's responsibility to define and limit the problem and to decide the plan of action for its solution; and in the process each individual has the freedom to acquire, examine, and question data, and to suggest how the problem can be solved. This is the democratic process in action.

## TYPES OF GROUP PROCEDURES

So numerous and varied are group counseling procedures that they are not readily classified. Robinson (29) classifies them as: (1) teaching groups, (2) discussion groups, (3) laboratory groups, (4) group psychotherapy, and (5) testing and psychodrama. Just where such topics as assemblies, student-councils, clubs, career days, work experience, college days, and so on, would be classified in these categories is conjectural. Furthermore, it is not clear whether these activities are to be sponsored by the instructional or the guidance staff. The important point is that these procedures may accomplish valuable objectives which should be included in the guidance program. We have made no attempt thus far to classify group procedures into definite types. Teaching groups and discussion groups were considered in preceding chapters. They will be considered further in subsequent paragraphs. Group psychotherapy is discussed in chapter 20. The reader will readily recognize other categories as we proceed.

### *Illustrative Group Procedures in Which Guidance May Be Found*

#### THE LABORATORY GROUP

Illustrative of the group methods in guidance is the precounseling orientation period (31). Combinations of the methods of teaching, discussion, laboratory, group psychotherapy, and testing may easily be noted. The precounseling orientation system provides the group a notion of what counseling service is; what the counselor can offer or what tests can do. Through discussion and graphic or film presentation the student is assisted in seeing the relationship between his goals and the means for reaching them through informational techniques. Students are encouraged in group discussions to ask questions to clarify the ideas and to make them his own by integrating with his past experience. Appropriate topics for group discussion in a precounseling orientation are:

1. Counseling resources available
2. The occupational families and pyramid
3. The United States occupational trends
4. Factors in planning
5. Counseling potentialities and limitations
6. Levels of personal counseling

During laboratory time tests may be taken; material related to the problem may be read; and practice may occur under supervision. Discussion may proceed about the types of tests and their uses, values, and limitations, and their relationship to vocational planning.

### THE ASSEMBLY

Although generally omitted by writers in the field of guidance, the opportunities for effective guidance in the assembly are significant. The assembly is the heart of the unifying influence of the school. Here can be felt the pulse of school morale, loyalty, group behavior, pride in and understanding of the work of the school, and the core of the activity program.

The school assembly can be used to develop student-interest in the activities of other groups, to assist students to gain correct audience habits, to promote good sportsmanship, to demonstrate outstanding group or classroom projects, and to provide a forum for discussing important guidance topics. The student is the connecting link between home and school. Unless he becomes aware of what is occurring within the school community he is unable to carry favorable reports to his home. The assembly, therefore, serves to correlate school and community interests, thereby contributing to desirable school-public relations.

Careful planning is necessary to make the assembly a success. It is usually desirable, for example, to organize a committee of students at the beginning of the year; conferences can be held with the music and speech departments; home-rooms and clubs may plan to participate—arrangements can be made for the program schedule for a month, semester, or the entire school year. The committee should appoint presiding officers for each assembly, check all arrangements for each performance, and appoint a stage crew to look after the public address system and other equipment.

The best assemblies usually reflect work of an organized group such as a class or club. The graduation exercises, for instance, should be planned and presented by the graduating students. An English class may dramatize a recent book on mental hygiene or guidance; the commercial club may dramatize the scenes of applying for a job, greeting customers, salesmanship, or correct business manners in general; the home economics class may present a style pageant; and the occupations class may dramatize advantages and disadvantages of various occupations.

The student assembly should reflect student endeavors. No outside speakers should be invited except by permission of the principal. Such speakers should be selected with care.

SCHOOL CLUBS

The significance of school clubs in high schools has long been recognized by administrators. Note the degree to which this activity can be used (30):

Membership in the forty-two clubs reaches eighty-two percent of the students. Twenty-seven of these—literary, interest, hobby, national agency —meet at general club period on Friday; the Honor clubs—National Honor Society, Thespians, Quill and Scroll, UNESCO—meet after school hours; with Wednesday activity period limited to the service and topic clubs. Officer qualifications forums are urged for home rooms before elections; and a parliamentary law class is held weekly for designated club officers. The G.O. Club Committee, after a study of the purposes, devised the annual report which each club submits; yearbook, plans and character of programs, participation, attendance, attitude toward other clubs, activities, administration, community service and control of finances. The faculty clubs committee judges on the basis of these reports and awards loving cups to the best clubs for ensuing year.

The many service clubs of Phillips perhaps attract most attention for they serve all students in some way, and the community in many ways. The *Ushers* Club, of upper semester boys, formed to usher at school performances and educational meetings, has extended its services to ushering at many community entertainments—Civic Symphony, Music Club, and approved commercial shows. They assist in school registration, act as "big brothers" to freshman boys, welcome visitors, distribute mail, and help to build school morale in many ways. The *Girls' Letter Club* operates the school exchange book store, entertains and acts as "big sisters" to freshman girls, serves at teas, and helps Ushers when needed. *Pen and Brush Club* designs and paints scenery, keeps posters in halls encouraging school projects as safety, good manners, sportsmanship, shows, campaigns, and college day; and designs cards and decorations for banquets.

can Field Service, a German youth who attends Phillips and lives in a student's home; sponsors United Nations trip, and gives programs at school and in the community on world understanding. The State Crew, Photography, Library, Projection, Future Teachers, Marshalls, and the Infirmary, Office, and Cafeteria assistants, and the many music and speech department organizations are all active in programs of serving the school and community.

The club appears to satisfy the adolescent urge to belong to a group and presents one of the best substitutes for high school fraternities. Properly sponsored the club can help satisfy the adolescent's basic needs for a sense of personal worth, security, recognition, and approval. In addition to assisting pupils to learn the social skills, clubs can develop and deepen pupils' interests and aptitudes in vocational and avocational pursuits. Club activity provides an ideal opportunity to practice group planning and decision.

*Techniques that make school clubs successful:* The key to a successful club is a well-informed, enthusiastic sponsor who is alert to the varied activities in which the club can engage. The club sponsor must be well *trained in the field of guidance and possess skills of counseling.* This enables him to maintain a permissive atmosphere in which pupils may learn by organizing, planning, and executing. He must have a sympathetic interest in boys and girls and enjoy their association and confidence. His democratic spirit will enable him to be interested in the inconspicuous pupil from a poor or obscure family; his sense of humor will permit him to endure the exuberance of youth. He is able to find his chief satisfaction in pupil-growth rather than an appreciation of his own efforts; and he is willing to give time and thought to making the club a success. Finally, the successful sponsor is keenly interested in the world and seeks to become sufficiently expert in one field of activity in which he feels he has found his niche.

What does the club do? In the first place, management must be carried out through club officers who have had, or who may be getting, special training for the roles they play. Given the opportunity, club members will suggest many excellent projects and proposals. With the assistance of the sponsor the program committee should determine the major objectives for the semester or year, and then plan individual programs to provide a variety of activities contributing toward these aims. Illustrative specific activities to accomplish objectives are: reports by pupils based on reading or interviews, dramatizations, demonstra-

tions, musical numbers, field trips, assembly programs, camp activities, and outdoor parties in the form of wiener roasts, skating parties, or sleigh rides. Suggestions for club activities may be found from the hundreds of accounts printed in the school professional magazines, manuals, and textbooks. (See bibliography, page 541.)

STUDENT GOVERNMENT

Student government is a common form of pupil participation. It provides a laboratory in which the understandings and skills involved in democratic citizenship may be practiced. Democratic ideals and skills cannot be achieved merely in reading about democracy. Participation in this form of government requires that students assume and discharge responsibility. Because student participation in student government implies teamwork among faculty, administration, and students there must be a type of guidance which will develop a mutual faith and respect among the fellow-workers. Student government involves a general organization of all students and this organization serves as the all-inclusive unit and directing force of the activity program. Machinery for elections is established, parliamentary procedure is learned—in brief, students have an opportunity to do those things which they will do as useful citizens in a representative democracy.

## The Student Council

Basic to student government is the student council, a group of boys and girls representing all the students and working coöperatively with the faculty and administration for the improvement of the school and development of leadership, character, and maturity of all members of the student body. Before a student council is organized, however, it is essential that the whole topic of student government be reviewed and studied by the faculty. A faculty planning committee should initiate and execute this study. The following plans which were followed by one faculty contain many concrete suggestions:

At the initial meeting the committee members exchanged ideas and formulated tentative objectives, for example: to develop a knowledge of democracy by practical application; to develop the sentiments for law and order and intelligent respect for authority; to develop increased self-direction, intelligent leadership, coöperation, school morale, and fellowship.

At a second meeting reports were given on existing forms of student

government as described in published literature. At a third meeting tentative plans for organizing a student council were made. Objectives and plans were then presented to the general faculty. These were adopted and the plans of organization were initiated.

## The Student Council Is Organized

In the high school the home-room is generally the basic unit: in the elementary school the classroom is the basic unit. These units elect their own officers and representatives to the student council. (Incidentally other elected officials may be: a representative for the parent-teacher association, a fire marshal, a monitor, etc.) In one school two representatives from each class, kindergarten through sixth grade, attended student-council meetings. These representatives voted for general officers. Another plan is to have the general organization officers elected by vote of all students in a campaign featuring petitions, conferences, posters, slogans, telephoning, and assembly speeches. There is an apparent trend for the representative base of the student council to be derived from the core class, the social studies, or some other established part of the curriculum, thus giving weight to a concept that the council is being recognized as a learning activity.

The general organization varies from school to school, but the pattern usually consists of president, vice-president, secretary, and major committees. A chairman of the faculty committee may act as the official sponsor of the general organization.

The student council is the legislative body which hears committee reports, sets up policies, submits proposals, supervises elections, makes appeals, and charters student organizations.

## Student Council Committees

An effective student council organization provides for decentralization of participation through committees. One elementary school council, for example, found a need for the following committees (representation indicated):

1. Building Traffic Committee
   Grade one—3 pupils
   Grade two—2 pupils
   Grade three—2 pupils
   Grade four—2 pupils
   Grade five—3 pupils

2. Street Traffic Committee
   Grade six—12 pupils
3. Grounds Committee
   Grades 1 to 5—one boy and one girl from each grade.
4. Girls Lavatory Committee
   One girl from each grade, 1 to 9 inclusive.
5. Boys Lavatory Committee (with teacher in charge)
   One boy from each grade, 1 to 9 inclusive.
6. Office Monitor Committee
   Two pupils each from grade 1 to 3 inclusive.

One high school council found the following committees useful:

1. Law and order
2. Assembly
3. Publicity and Publications
4. Scholarship
5. Athletics (including sportsmanship)
6. Safety
7. Recreation
8. Decoration (preparing posters, stage scenery, etc.)
9. Declamation (conducting assemblies, pep talks, radio programs, television, etc.)
10. Lost and Found

Most important of the student council committees is the student-planning committee whose duty it is to assure the systematic, effective, and wholesome participation of the student body. The membership of this committee should be comprised of the executive officers and chairman of each of the other committees. Each of the committee chairmen brings with him to the meetings of this planning committee his committee report. The report may be outlined as follows:

1. Our duties
2. How we carry out our duties
3. Members of our committee
4. Problems we have
5. Suggestions
6. Teacher in charge

### Activities of the Student Council

Inasmuch as the number and variety of projects reported by student councils make a complete list impractical we may present for illustra-

tive purposes, a small sampling of projects listed by the student activities committee of the National Association of Secondary School Principals (34).

### Attitudes

1. Secure students' suggestions for changes.
2. Conduct a campaign to improve school spirit.
3. Develop a 50-question test for hall officers.
4. Issue monthly bulletin on what students can do to develop courtesy, citizenship, discipline.
5. Plan and promote a "better manners" campaign.

### Rewards

1. Determine kinds and recipients of athletic awards.
2. Give public awards to students who have received very little recognition for hard work.
3. Give an awards banquet for all those who have participated in the school activities program.
4. Provide badges for cafeteria workers.
5. Award prize for best assembly program of year.

### Coöperation

1. Visit-other schools to gain new ideas.
2. Plan student-community activity for each week.
3. Serve on student-faculty committees.
4. Attend meetings throughout state as a representative of the student body.
5. Send representatives to local, district, state, and regional conferences of the Student Council.

### Public Relations

1. Elect members of Council to adult community youth council.
2. Present program over the local radio station.
3. Take over city government for a day.
4. Coöperate in community clean-up and paint-up campaign.
5. Sponsor art and music appreciation programs for both the student body and the public.

### Welfare

1. Collect clothes for unfortunates at home and abroad.
2. Collect, repair, and distribute toys.
3. Present baskets of food, at Thanksgiving and Christmas, to the needy.

The following detailed description of a specific project in guidance suggests one avenue directly relating the student-council activities to the guidance program:

Under the guidance of the principal and facilty adviser a committee chose to conduct a survey among the eighth-grade pupils. The survey included the following questions:

1. Do you understand how your high school subjects can help you in preparing for a career? For example, how does biology fit into nursing?

2. Are you familiar with jobs offered in this area? How would you prepare for them?

3. Do you have a career in mind? Does Terryville offer the courses you will need for it?

4. Would you be interested in more information concerning the following careers? Place X before those in which you are interested.

..... Accountancy
Agriculture
..... Dairy
..... Fruit
..... Livestock
..... Poultry
..... Tobacco
..... Vegetable
..... Aircraft Manu-
 facturing
..... Air Hostess
..... Airplane Pilot
..... Architect
..... Automobile
 Mechanic
..... Barber
..... Beauty Operator
..... Bookkeeper
..... Bricklayer
..... Cabinetmaker
..... Carpenter
..... Chemist
..... Dental Hygien-
 ist
..... Dental Techni-
 cian

..... Dentist
..... Detective
..... Draftsman
Education
..... College
..... Elementary
..... Secondary
..... Health and
 Physical
 Education
Electrician
Engineering
..... Electrical
..... Civil
..... Chemical
..... Industrial
..... Mechanical
..... Metallurgical
..... Mining
..... Funeral Director
 and Embalmer
..... Furniture Indus-
 try
..... Insurance Occu-
 pations

..... Lawyer
..... Librarian
..... Meat Cutter
..... Medical X-Ray
 Technician
..... Nursing and
 Health Services
..... Optometrist
..... Painter and
 Paperhanger
..... Patternmaker
..... Pharmacist
..... Photographer
..... Printer or
 Engraver
..... Radio Announcer
..... Radio Engineer
..... Railroad Occupa-
 tions
..... Refrigeration and
 Air-Condition-
 ing Mechanic
..... Salesman
..... Secretary, Stenog-
 rapher, and
 Typist
..... Social Worker
..... Therapist
..... Tool and Die
 Maker
..... Veterinarian

List any others .......................................

Each member of the student council then chose a specific occupation for study with the idea of becoming an "Amateur Expert." For example, one pupil who was interested in engineering as a career pursued his study in this manner:

First, a catalogue was sent for from numerous engineering schools in order to learn the requirements for entrance, costs, types of courses, years of preparation, etc. Then several engineers were contacted for firsthand information concerning their types of work; that is, mechanical, chemical, electrical, etc. Through the principal's office he located professional magazines that would be of help in gaining an insight into current engineering fields. The library gave further assistance. He wrote a ten-minute report covering the highlights of the engineering field.

Pupils who selected other occupations followed the same pattern of procedure. Once the reports were completed, the pupils turned them in to the principal and the student-council faculty adviser. The reports were checked for organization, content, and interest. Each pupil then gave an oral report before two advisers who could assist him in delivery techniques.

On designated days, subject to the approval of principals and teachers of the lower level, these council members visited the classrooms, speaking on numerous careers. The many questions the pupils asked indicated interest in the project.

## EVALUATION OF THE STUDENT COUNCIL

That objectives of student-council functions may be clarified, validated, established, and maintained, continuous evaluation is essential. Everyone who is concerned with the entire school program should have an opportunity to evaluate the school council. This includes the faculty, the students, the administrator, the custodian, and even parents of children. Many techniques of evaluation may be adopted, but the most convenient are the questionnaire and informal written comment. Two illustrations of the questionnaire are given below.

### AN ILLUSTRATIVE EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE FACULTY

Is the student council a legislative branch of the total school government in which all school citizens participate actively?

Are all groups of adults and students represented on the council?

Is time provided for all groups—home-rooms, core rooms, faculty meetings—for decisions on plans and policies?

Does the operation of the student council encourage a better informed student body in social and economic issues of our world? Does it develop an attitude of social responsibility? An ability to arrive at coöperative decisions?

Does the operation of the school council permit students to learn democracy by practicing it? Does it permit a coöperative planning approach, in which students and faculty members join each other in a mutual attack upon the real problems of the total school?

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### AN ILLUSTRATIVE EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE STUDENTS

We are trying to find out how you feel about our Student Council. Will you please help us by answering the following questions? Just put down what you think. Do not sign this sheet.

1. Are you glad that our school has a student council?                                         Yes ........ No ........
2. Are you interested in what the council does?          Yes ........ No ........
3. Do you know why we have the student council?                                                 Yes ........ No ........
4. Does the council help you to understand the school's problems?                                Yes ........ No ........
5. Do you have a chance to talk about the school problems?                                       Yes ........ No ........
6. Does your class have good representatives?            Yes ........ No ........
7. Do you think the council helps the school?           Yes ........ No ........
8. Do you think the council has good officers?          Yes ........ No ........
9. Do you think the council helps to make you a better citizen?                                  Yes ........ No ........
10. Do you think you are part of the council?           Yes ........ No ........
11. Do you think we should always have a student council?                                        Yes ........ No ........
12. How can we improve the student council?

..................................................................
..................................................................
..................................................................

### ORGANIZED GUIDANCE ACTIVITIES

*The Home-Room As a Medium for Guidance*

The home-room has held a permanent place in the organization of junior and senior high schools for over two decades. However, the core course has gained such popularity that eventually the home-room may be abandoned. Until such transformation occurs, however, the home-room will have a significant function in the guidance program.

The home-room is a meeting place for a group of twenty-five to

thirty-five pupils with a sponsor to come together either for administrative convenience, group learning, or social activity. From an administrative standpoint necessary announcements can be made, lockers can be issued, fees collected, attendance taken. If it continues only for such administrative activities its existence can scarcely be justified. In the absence of a core program the home-room can serve effectively as a group situation in which guidance procedures can be found. The purpose of the home-room should be to set up an ideal, intimate, democratic relationship between pupils and teachers in which the curriculum, extra-classroom activities, and the general guidance program might be better coördinated.

The home-room exists with variations in respect to frequency with which pupils meet, length of periods, time of day, types of activities, and purpose. The length of time commonly devoted to the home-room is one forty-five minute period a week. Shorter periods can scarcely be called a home-room period and meeting more frequently may easily develop into boredom.

HOW ARE GROUPS FOR HOME-ROOMS ORGANIZED?

Two methods are commonly used to organize pupils into a home-room group. By the first method pupils are chosen by alphabet or some other plan of random selection within each grade level; by the second method students are selected from all grade levels. The second method has the merit of reproducing the family situation permitting boys and girls of different age levels to work and play together. Nevertheless, potential dangers are inherent; e.g., older boys and girls may dominate social and athletic activities.

The home-room group should remain together under the same sponsor for several years. Note the following example as a variation of this plan (40):

When the student enters the ninth grade he is assigned a faculty advisor for four years. For example, commercial students are divided equally among all three commercial teachers; home-making girls are sponsored by the home-making teacher; college-entrance students are assigned to English, social studies, mathematics, and science teachers. The ratio is one to twenty-five. Each teacher is responsible for one field of study only.

At the end of the ninth year each student is given a "course sheet" which is mimeographed into four forms: college-entrance, vocational,

commercial, and general. On each sheet are spaces for listing all subjects: e.g., one area for the basic subjects—English, social studies, and general science; one area for major fields; and one area for electives. After each area are spaces for recording grades and units earned; recording is usually done during the summer after final examinations.

When the student returns in the fall the student and advisor can see at a glance what subjects have been passed and the number of units earned. Each student confers with his advisor at least twice, spring and fall, during the school year. A third conference may be desirable in January if any courses have been completed at that time. For the spring meeting a special period is set aside during the school day for the student-advisor conference. All course sheets are delivered to home-room teachers who in turn distribute them to students. Each student goes to an assigned room where his advisor is ready to meet him.

The student is ready for fall term because schedules are based upon present progress and future needs and desires. If the student decided to change a course he is routed by the office to another advisor, who takes him over for the rest of his high school career.

The home-room fails as a guidance medium if it lacks organization, permits too many interruptions, contains pupils with too wide a range of interests which takes them out of the home-room, fails to provide a time or place for individual counseling and guidance, and is supervised by a teacher untrained in guidance techniques and procedures.

## THE HOME-ROOM CAN BE THE MAIN COUNSELING CENTER

The home-room provides the opportunity for a student to have at least one teacher in his school as his friend, his confidant, his counselor. The home-room teacher should serve as the basic counseling agent with the help and guidance of the professional school counselor. The teacher sets the stage for a free, friendly, uninhibited discussion of real problems. He is genuinely interested in activities; observes individual reactions and relationships; obtains and records important data; and guides the group toward becoming a richer, better integrated small society.

The home-room is the basic group for guidance purposes in high schools not organized into core classes. It becomes the center for discovering interests and needs of students, which are recorded and filed. These records should contain information indicating special interests, fears, handicaps, problems, hobbies, likes and dislikes, academic abilities, mental ability, achievements, and aptitude. Illustrative of the type of

counseling that may go on in a home-room is the conference method described below:

A group of pupils having common problems and related interests are grouped around a table to exchange their points of view and their individual experiences. They pool their various opinions and attempt to summarize discussion in the form of some definite conclusions.

The leader opens the conference by making a clear statement of the problem, then encouraging each person to express himself. Irrelevant discussion is discouraged and conclusions are frequently given as summaries. If it is to be successful, such a conference requires that the group members understand the problem and that the group is empowered to do something about it. The leader should be alert and enjoy working with people. He must be patient, even-tempered, a good listener, free from prejudices, interested, practical, poised, and able to adjust himself to many diverse situations and personalities.

The conference will be more successful if it is conducted in the following sequence: (1) aim and purpose; (2) outline of introductory remarks; (3) list of questions and notes that are to be employed in the body of the conference; and (4) notes on concluding remarks, reminders, and assignments.

Appropriate topics for such a roundtable discussion include those items of interest which can rarely be found in the classroom. Some of these are:

1. Problem of boy and girl relations.
2. Personal, social, and economic status.
3. Appearance and dress.
4. Recreational guidance.
5. Home-room clubs, intramural games, and athletics.
6. Pupil assistance in planning.
7. Home-room parties.
8. "How to be popular."
9. "Dating."
10. Selection of elective subjects.
11. Explanatory subjects, e.g., general language, industrial arts, commerce.

## THE HOME-ROOM CAN BRIDGE THE GAP
## BETWEEN HOME AND SCHOOL

For large junior and senior high schools the home-room provides a convenient unit around which can be organized a parent-teacher's association. The association may meet with the teacher in the home-room and later join with other home-room groups for a special program. Home-room parent groups may elect representatives to a planning com-

mittee which meets during the school day with the teachers of that grade level. The growing importance of parent-teacher conferences can receive even more impetus through the home-room unit. Conferences with parents may become a regular responsibility of the home-room teacher. In some schools the home-room teacher makes at least one visit each semester at every home represented in his group. Parents may participate as resource persons, panel members, chaperons, hostesses, and in planning processes.

## THE CORE CURRICULUM

Although considerable discussion has already been devoted to the core curriculum in foregoing pages it is still deserving of a place in a chapter devoted to group situations in the guidance program. The core curriculum is based on the assumption that there are certain common learning experiences which everyone needs to live happily and usefully. Such fundamental learnings cannot safely be divided into subject-matter categories to be taught in unrelated teaching fields. The core curriculum consists of common problems and needs which youth in our society face. Subject matter from all pertinent fields of knowledge is drawn upon to clarify persistent common problems of living and to provide data for solving them.

Although the core curriculum may be in several designs, the common element is a core of general education based upon a program of problems which have been chosen by the teacher and his group of students. Thus it is assumed that the teacher and students are most competent to determine the common needs of the particular group. Few high schools, however, have been ready to accept this design without modification. Problem areas, for example, are usually worked out by the entire faculty with the individual teacher selecting the specific units of work to be planned and carried out coöperatively with the students. The group identifies the particular problems upon which it wishes to work, draws upon all available resources, and organizes itself for an intensive study of these problems.

The common core can be described by the following characteristics (12):

1. The core is free from subject-matter patterns. (This is its most distinctive aspect.)
2. The core emphasizes group problem-solving, teacher-pupil planning.

This is in contrast to predetermination of group goals and procedures by teachers or textbook writers.

3. The core provides for a daily block of time longer than the conventional forty-five to sixty-minute high school period. Core classes often work together with the same teacher or a team of teachers for two or three years.

4. The core places emphasis upon improved guidance and counseling at the classroom level.

## The Home-Room and the Core Curriculum

The home-room plan can provide a base on which a core curriculum can be developed. Activities seldom found in the regular subject organized classroom may begin in the home-room and these, in turn, may become part of the regular curriculum. Typical of these activities are safety education, home and family living, vocational guidance, boy and girl relationships, personal grooming, etiquette, community history, hobbies, citizenship, and observation of special days.

If we consider the home-room as a situation in which activities are based upon the needs of the immediate society in which the learner lives, then the home-room is actually the "core" around which the work in another course, or other courses, is planned. Conversely, the core organization makes the home-room of the traditional curriculum a part of the core.

ILLUSTRATION OF A SEQUENCE OF UNITS IN A CORE CURRICULUM
DESIGN (12, 1)

*Freshman Core:* Orientation
1. Finding myself in school and community
2. Choosing a vocation
3. New horizons through literature
4. The United States and world affairs

*Sophomore Core:* World Mindedness
1. The atomic age
2. War and peace
3. The development of law and justice
4. Theaters, motion pictures, radio, and television

*Junior Core:* American Life and Culture
1. The American people
2. America in literature
3. The United States government, its structure and development
4. The development of an American economic system

*Senior Core:* Life Adjustment

1. College and careers
2. Our literary heritage
3. Consumer education
4. Marriage and family living

### Advantages of the Core Curriculum for the Guidance Program

The core program makes possible a direct attack upon the needs and problems of students. When common problems are identified they are studied intensively, appropriate subject matter is drawn upon, and solutions are reached through individual and group thinking. The core can bridge the gap between education and guidance. Traditional extra-curricular activities become a part of the educative process and because the units are so comprehensive, individual differences in abilities and rates of learning are provided for without ability grouping.

As a direct result of their being together for a long period of time, pupils in a core class become better acquainted with their peers and teacher. Just as the home-room teacher, the core teacher becomes better acquainted with pupils and can even become their close friend, confidant, and counselor. The core curriculum can provide for the maximum development of the individual's capacities. In the group endeavors each pupil can find some phase in which his special aptitudes can be developed. In order that this occurs, however, the core teacher must know the individual intimately, his interests, abilities, achievements, and environmental background. Data contributing to this knowledge must be filed for the core teacher's convenience, that is, in the classroom.

If guidance is to be successful in the core curriculum the training of the teacher in techniques of guidance must be far beyond what it is today. Although the core teacher will perform the basic guidance function through his individual counseling contacts with students, he will never be able to function entirely independently of the professionally-trained school counselor.

## GENERAL GUIDANCE COURSES

### The Exploratory or General Guidance Course

Included in the organized curriculum patterns are regular courses designed for the specific purpose of giving pupils adequate educational and vocational information. In addition, units stressing occupational

and educational information can be found in several courses. Other methods are discussed later in this chapter, but for immediate illustrative purposes we shall consider these two forms of curriculum design.

The special course whether it be called an exploratory course or guidance course originated in junior high school, probably with the industrial arts area, and later in commercial subjects where students were given an overview of the business world. It has always been difficult to distinguish between regular and exploratory courses, but the purpose has been to give students a preview of actual work that is performed on the job. During the course the student has the opportunity to evaluate his potentialities and interests for related occupations. However, such a course should have sufficient intrinsic value that it will add to the total fund of knowledge regardless of whether or not one follows one of the vocations explored.

A student who enrolls in the exploratory course should have many opportunities for first-hand contact and sense impressions through field trips, motion pictures or television, slides and unprojected pictures, and representative speakers. Experiences, however, should not be so detailed and specific as to prevent a view of the general occupational field such as conditions of employment, abilities required, and services rendered. Essential to a successful exploratory course is a teacher skilled in the collection and analysis of data. The student should be closely observed and data recorded in the form of anecdotes, stenographic interviews, products of pupils' written work, and results of tests. The data collected about the student should be a part of the guidance program and kept in a cumulative file. The use of these data should be applied not only to individual students but also to a composite picture which can be used for curriculum planning.

Illustrative topics found in an exploratory or general guidance course are: the techniques of effective study; the importance of looking ahead; the value of education; adjusting to the school; the meaning of success; aids to self-analysis; choosing a course of study; mechanical occupations; careers in science; opportunities in salesmanship; occupations in art and music, writing, social service, agriculture, and clerical work; domestic and personal service; how to apply for a job; how to earn a promotion; and how to establish credit. These topics will readily lead to the conclusion that no one occupation is given exclusive importance to the point of detailed analysis. Occupational information is obtained,

but emphasis is on general fields of related occupations and personality problems rather than on a specific vocation.

Certainly such a course should not be a "dumping ground" for students who are failing in other courses; yet it should be a course in which no student ever fails to the point of having to repeat it. It should have meaning to the student in terms of further education or employment.

## Guidance in Regular Courses

Guidance topics may be integrated into a regular course by being placed in a subject distinctly related to a vocation, or, as in the case of English, guidance material can be used as a core around which learning activities can center. A common pattern is to designate a block of time within a regular course to be devoted to a study of occupations or a topic of personal and social development. The most common area for the introduction of such units is the social studies area. A unit in social studies, for example, may require a survey of the occupational life of the community, supplemented by class discussions, readings, and motion pictures. The so-called guidance units are generally organized around problems of self-analysis, survey of occupational life, analysis of occupations, vocational choices, necessary training for a vocation, and getting started on a job. A unit on personal and social development may appropriately be introduced in a biology or home economics class; a unit on types of work, general attitudes which help a person hold a job may become part of a general business course.

One ninth-grade studies course has a vocations unit which enables pupils to work in a place of business for two weeks to gain actual work experience. Individuals may select their own type of job or place of business but once they are at work they must file daily reports and then a final report with the school. A follow-up study and discussion leads to a study of certain occupations and professions according to interests discovered through the work experiences, or ones brought out through interest tests. Eventually consideration must be given to educational requirements, high school courses required for college entrance, and type of college to consider in preparing for this particular occupation or profession.

The English class provides numerous avenues for guidance projects or units. One class, for example, chose a project of writing bibliographies. When these were handed to the teacher she wrote comments upon various statements and suggestions which might prove helpful in

plans and problems. Pupils were invited to make an appointment with the teacher to discuss some problem mentioned in the bibliography.

Another English class chose to prepare an important talk or research paper on the topic "My Future" (7). The class was organized into committees and participated in the following activities: (1) One committee arranged an early exhibit of occupational monographs and briefs that were close at hand in the school library and invited the librarian to meet the class for part of a period to make suggestions and answer questions. (2) Another committee visited the Office of the United States Employment Service. The chief employment counselor of this office visited the class to answer questions and returned the next day to administer an interest check-list. The results of this experience led into training requirements and employment opportunities.

Guidance counselors of the school offered help in evaluating individual aptitudes on the basis of tests, cumulative records, and counseling. Three films were shown and discussed: *Finding Your Life Work; Your Job—Are You Preparing For It?* and, *How to Apply For, Win, and Advance On a Job.*

The final talks given by the pupils gave the class group a wide survey of occupational areas. The following essay appearing in the *Creative Writing Folder* summarizes these guidance experiences very well:

### REFLECTIONS ON MY SENIOR TALK

I felt no joy as I viewed the bulletin board. Indeed, I felt very sad about the whole thing. For there for all to read were the two words that spelled hours of hard work and misery, SENIOR TALKS.

Well, there was no way of getting out of it. And so it was that I entered the room the next day feeling very much like a martyr. I took my seat resolved to meet this crisis bravely. At least it promised to be novel. We were to investigate the professions we were planning to enter. My chosen field at this time happened to be Chemical Engineering. And this was to be the topic on which I was to speak.

Then followed very much what I expected. She wanted an outline, bibliography, and how many other things I cannot say. So like the good little martyr that I am, I hopped, skipped, and jumped up to the library. I asked for the college bulletins featuring courses in Chemical Engineering. The librarian, being a good librarian, brought me the bulletin of a university having one of the best courses in my chosen field.

I almost choked when I looked at that course! I have not yet recovered from the shock. Those who survive that course will know more mathematics than Pythagoras himself!

But being the brave fellow that I am, I continued on. I next investigated the pamphlets on that subject. That was the final straw which broke the patient camel's back. The things that happen to a chemical engineer shouldn't happen to the proverbial dog! His love for his work, say some, is supposed to compensate for these little inconveniences. *Amare desistiti.*

Now it's over. I have given my talk: and I have, I hope, returned to normal. And since it is all over, I think perhaps that all the "wasted effort" wasn't wasted. I have changed my mind. Perhaps if I had not gone through all that torture I might have entered a field about which I was largely ignorant, and which I certainly would not have liked. Through the research necessary for this talk, I have discovered a field far more satisfying to me, education. Perhaps you will say that I am fickle. Be that as it may, I am glad that I know what I know today. And so to future martyrs I leave this parting thought: It may seem like a gruesome task, but prove to be one which you may have reason not to regret. (7:517)

The teaching of such units should be done by well-trained counselors, or social studies teachers who have a background of knowledge in occupations and guidance techniques. If the unit is based on a textbook only, it has little value; it must be developed through the community as a laboratory. Mere knowledge about adjustment mechanisms, study techniques, or job qualities will not result in students being able to recognize or correct their own inadequacies.

## Life Adjustment Education

During the last decade increased attention has been given to a movement described as "Life Adjustment Education." The movement does not present a new philosophy of education but it does attempt to implement accepted educational principles. The originators of the program were more interested in promoting action rather than theory, thus all worthy and practicable efforts to improve secondary education were embraced.

The National Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth defines the concept as follows (37):

Life Adjustment Education is that which better equips all American youth to live democratically with satisfaction to themselves and with profit to society as home members, workers, and citizens.

1. It is concerned with ethical and moral living and with physical and emotional health.
2. It regards the fundamental skills as important, since citizens in a de-

mocracy must be able to compute, to read, to write, to listen, and to speak effectively. It emphasizes skills as tools for further achievements.

3. It stresses the development of wholesome recreational interests of both an individual and social nature.

4. It centers attention upon solving the present problems of youth as well as preparing them to solve their future problems.

5. It is for all American youth and offers them learning experiences appropriate to their capacities.

6. It recognizes the importance of personal satisfactions and achievements for each individual within the limits of his abilities.

7. It respects the dignity of honest labor and recognizes the educational values of responsible work experience in the life of the community.

8. It provides both general and specialized education: but, even in the former, common goals are to be attained through differentiation both as to subject matter and experience.

9. It accepts deferred as well as immediate values. For each individual it keeps an open road and stimulates the maximum achievement of which he is capable.

10. It recognizes that many events of importance happened a long time ago, but it holds that the real significance of these events is in their bearing upon life today.

11. It promotes active and creative achievements as well as adjustment to existing conditions; it places a high premium upon learning to make wise choices, since the very concept of American democracy demands the appropriate revising of aims and the means of attaining them.

12. It is education fashioned to achieve desired outcomes in terms of character and behavior. It is not education which follows convention for its own sake or holds any aspects of the school as an end in itself rather than a means to an end.

13. It has many patterns. For a school, class, or pupil it is an individual matter. The same pattern should not be adopted in one community merely because it is effective in another. It must make sense in each community in terms of the goals which are set and the resources which are available.

The Commission had no intention of presenting a predetermined program. While it was believed that life adjustment could best be attained through a complete curriculum reorganization based upon significant areas of living, it was pointed out that much could be done within the conventional curriculum and organizational framework of the traditional school.

Life adjustment education has been influential in focusing attention

upon the needs of none-college students. This emphasis has resulted in widespread experiments in general education and some changes in terminology. Instead of using terms such as exploratory course, general guidance course—even core course, some schools are now using the phrase, "Life Adjustment Class."

## Group Guidance Through the Library

The library provides an ideal environment for group guidance but its effectiveness will depend entirely on proper planning, direction, and organization. In one respect the library may be regarded as a medium for implementing guidance; in another respect it may be considered as the main functionary of group guidance procedure.

To facilitate organization the library should be centralized as a special guidance reading room where pupils can find up-to-date pamphlet material, books on how to get a job, how to improve your personality, college catalogues, and school directories. On the other hand, the library may be decentralized; each classroom is equipped with a bookshelf of guidance material. A combination of these two organizational patterns is desirable.

Through the library service, students should be able to find vocational information in books, on bulletin boards, exhibits of book covers, in pamphlets, in magazine articles. Instructional materials in the form of films, slides, and motion pictures are sometimes retained at the library; if not, they will be at some other audio-visual center.

Included in library materials should be special studies and government reports. The latest census records are available from the Bureau of the Census. Recent interpretations of the census by various writers are valuable, e.g., classification of the workers in America from a socio-economic viewpoint. *The Dictionary of Occupational Titles* should be available as well as the *Vocational Information Service* published by Science Research Associates. The latter publication gives sources of many free or inexpensive materials. Articles clipped from current magazines and newspapers dealing with occupational information are very useful.

All library materials except books, magazine, and catalogues can be placed in file folders and labeled with the name of the vocation or the field of guidance to which it applies. In these folders can also be placed sheets which refer to material on the subject located in books and magazines (17).

## COMMUNITY COÖPERATION IN GUIDANCE OF GROUPS

A good school serves a direct community function through helping solve the problems of the community, and in doing so it develops a sense of the community within all the students. Not only must the school become a community itself but it must also utilize community activities and problems in its curriculum by taking the school group into community life for the mutual benefit of each.

Space prohibits an extensive discussion in this textbook of the various ways in which the community and school work together. Fortunately such discussions are available elsewhere.[1] Nevertheless, we shall briefly consider three activities as examples in which procedures of group guidance may be found: the Career Conference, the Work-Experience Program, and the Community Occupational Survey.

### The Career Conference

The program of school-community coöperation emphasizes the fullest possible use of community resources. These resources include people who may contribute to all features of the school program. An excellent opportunity to accomplish this aim and at the same time to use group methods in guidance is the Career Conference, sometimes referred to as "the vocational information conference," or "career day," wherein men and women from numerous vocations are brought to the campus for a period of several days or less to speak to students in groups and to consult with them individually on the job opportunities in their fields. The values of such a project may be summarized as follows:

1. To provide students with current information from people actually doing the work, and thus stimulate the student toward successful effort.
2. To inform the student of immediate employment trends.
3. To acquaint the student with requirements for entrance into various occupations, colleges, and other schools.
4. To acquaint the student with new vocational possibilities and thus broaden his occupational horizons.
5. To make the student aware of occupations related to his present choice. This adds to his knowledge of the fields in which he is already interested.

[1] A plan for Filing Unbound Occupational Information by George Hutchinson can be obtained from *The Chronicle*, Port Byron, New York. An equally good plan, The SRA Occupational Filing Plan, can be obtained from Science Research Associates, 228 S. Wabash Avenue, Chicago, Illinois.

6. To provide the student with actual first-hand information leads into future placement.

Secondary values to students and townspeople who work on the career conference are also apparent. An opportunity for many kinds of organizational and social experience are available in the process of conference planning, working on hospitality, publicity, exhibits, and recording. The career conference also results in improved public relations through publicity; and through personal contacts with a wide variety of speakers with faculty, students, alumni, and invited guests. The career conference should be considered as a continuous process in which students are encouraged to explore the world of work by every means at their disposal, to appraise realistically with a counselor's aid their own abilities and interests, and to make flexible plans as a result of these analyses. It is but one segment in the process of vocational orientation. Information alone does not increase wisdom in vocational choice; best results come when vocational information is combined with counseling.

Accounts of successful career conferences are easily found in current professional education literature. The following description illustrates many of the desirable features:

In the Albert Lea High School the Career Day was planned as a joint project of the Vocational Guidance Committee of the Kiwanis Club and of the school guidance committee. The primary purpose was to acquaint the students further with the varied fields of occupations and the specific occupations carried on in the local community.

A list of the various vocations in the community was given to all the students to study and discuss in the social studies classes. After the student had an opportunity to study the vocations he was asked to indicate a first and second choice of occupation, his intentions on further training, and the school he would like to attend to receive training. After the survey was compiled and a tabulation taken of the most popular occupations listed, students were once again asked to make a choice.

The Kiwanis Committee and the vocational counselors met to discuss the expressed desires of the students. The Kiwanis Committee then secured speakers or discussion leaders for the two vocational discussions conducted in the morning session of Career Day. The Guidance Committee prepared a suggested outline for the discussion leaders to follow and a meeting place for the various groups. Local community leaders were secured as discussion leaders whenever possible; otherwise, outside talent was found.

Letters were then sent to discussion leaders containing the following information: time and place of the meetings; suggestions for covering such topics as qualifications for the job, what the employee can expect in the way of duties or advancement, earnings, advantages and disadvantages, related fields, and the future of the profession.

Invitations to the colleges or schools in which the students expressed an interest were sent asking them to be present on the afternoon of Career Day. In some cases in which the representatives asked for the information, a list of the students' names was sent. They, in turn, sent catalogues and literature to the students.

The local Kiwanis Club sent letters to the school representatives and asked them to be present at the noon luncheon. Each representative was met at the door by a Kiwanian and later introduced at the luncheon.

Arrangements were made with the local business firms and industries to take the seniors not interested in additional education on a tour of their business enterprises. An outline was prepared by the Guidance Committee listing the things to be covered on this tour. All arrangements for the tours were made by the Kiwanians.

The actual program appeared as follows:

|  |  |
|---|---|
| 9:30 | Opening assembly—Grades 10–11–12. Introduction of discussion leaders. Inspirational address. |
| 10:30–11:30 | Group Vocational Discussion, 1st choice. |
| 11:30–12:30 | Group Vocational Discussion, 2nd choice. |
| | Main Career Day Speaker—Guest Speaker. |
| | National Honor Society Members and their fathers are Kiwanis guests. |
| | Discussion leaders guests of school faculty at noon luncheon. |
| 1:15–3:00 | Students not interested in college take tours of local industries or business houses. |
| 3:00–4:00 | Juniors and sophomores interested in college meet with college representatives. |
| 4:00 | Faculty coffee hour with college representatives as guests. (42) |

We note in the above description the several steps generally found in initiating and activating a career conference. These we can list in order:

1. The program is arranged by a committee of faculty members, pupils, and laymen.
2. A survey of student interest.
3. A definite plan for preparing for the conference. Students, faculty, and speakers need preparation for what is to be discussed, tours to be taken, evaluations to be made, and so on.

4. Sufficient time for discussion, questions, and individual conferences.
5. Sufficient use of audio-visual materials including observation field tours.
6. A definite plan for "follow-up" including supplementary information, discussion, and individual counseling.

Variations in career conference arrangements are as numerous as are schools holding them. Occasionally the conferences are held on a country-wide or regional basis; occasionally the conferences are limited to high school seniors; time varies from an hour of the school day to once a semester or a year; an entire day may be used or one meeting held each week throughout the year.

The usual pattern is to begin with a general assembly followed by a series of discussions in groups. The approach may be from an area in which several types of activities may be considered within one "occupational family." For example, a student who is interested in working with children may participate in discussions about child welfare, nursery schools, child psychology, children's library work, and elementary school children.

A second approach would be more specific where a student may, for example, receive information on the profession of teaching in the elementary school.

In summary, it may be said that the most successful career day is integrated with an analysis of the student's interest, ability, and educational opportunity. This will avoid the danger of the common over-emphasis upon the professions to the neglect of the trades, commercial pursuits, and agriculture. The career conference must do something more than increase occupational information; it must be an integral part of the entire guidance process.

## Work Experience in the Guidance Program

In defining "work experience" (sometimes called "coöperative education") for school youth we must consider two points of view. The first would limit work experience to "having a paid job" in which some type of service is rendered for salary or wages. The second would supplement this definition with rendering services with no return or substance. This second point of view is more widely accepted in general guidance programs; it implies that work experience has even more significant educational than remunerative values.

The values of work experience are difficult to isolate and describe specifically, however. Nevertheless, there is no disagreement in that

some undefined amount of work experience should be included. In addition to bringing the school and community together in a coöperative enterprise, two general objectives are rather explicit: (1) at time of graduation every high school student should have established the habit of giving some of his time and effort to the welfare of his community; (2) young people should acquire a reasonably comprehensive knowledge of the opportunities for community service which are open to them.

Work experience may range from the most narrow and highly technical apprenticeships in precise occupations to the almost incidental work experiences that may be included in a recreational camping program. Participation in coöperative community projects and campaigns such as campus beautification, community chest drives, conservation drives, and so on, have long been advocated by educators. Work experience of this type is of a different nature yet of equal value to part-time jobs in distributive education, coöperative office practice, or mechanical occupations.

The criteria for selecting specific types of work experience must be adapted only after consideration of such varied questions as:

Will the work experience meet group needs? or individual needs? or both group and individual needs?

Will the work experience teach highly specific skills? or will it be more valuable in teaching abilities and appreciations?

Will the work experience be more valuable to young adolescents? or older youth? or adults?

Will the work experience supplement or support the academic program? How?

Will the work experience be economically feasible to the school system?

Every school should formulate criteria by which work-experience programs are governed. An excellent example of a statement of policy which governs work experience in a small city school system follows (*19*):

1. The pupil must be employed in an approved type of work for a minimum of fifteen hours per week.
2. A part of the fifteen hours must be on school time.
3. The pupil must spend one hour a week in a class providing related information.

4. The pupil must fill out a work report each week.
5. The employer provides experience and training for the occupation.
6. The employer reports to the coördinator at regular intervals regarding the progress of the pupil.
7. The employer pays the pupils at regular wages.
8. Whenever problems arise, the coördinator tries to work these out between the pupil and the employer.
9. The coördinator offers counsel and advice to the pupil regarding questions that arise.
10. Through working with other teachers, the coördinator attempts to relate schoolwork to the job.
11. The school gives credit for the work equal to that given for one regular subject.
12. The parent gives permission for the pupil to be excused from school to work.
13. Whenever problems arise that require home coöperation in their solution, parents are interviewed by the coördinator.

Regardless of any criteria selected the real value of work experience in the guidance program will be dependent upon thoroughness of planning, skillfulness of supervision, and consistency of continuous evaluation.

## The School-Community Occupational Survey

The school-community occupational survey is an excellent means for securing school-community coöperation. Adults who work with youth on such a project may learn much about planning, discussion, problem-solving techniques, and the role education can play in community needs. In addition to gaining valuable experience in coöperative planning in activities with community leaders, students who work on the project develop a better understanding and appreciation of the community. Properly conducted, an occupational survey can do much to inform the community of the objectives of the school and to promote good school-public relations. The occupational information received can be used to revise the vocational curricula offered by the public school.

### PREPARATION FOR THE SURVEY

Such an undertaking can best be initiated by the school's guidance department, but to be successful it will require administrative support, faculty and pupil assistance, and the coöperation of the community. In preparing for the survey, school and community interest must be aroused

and a clear understanding of the genuine need for information established. A good way to initiate the project is to make a survey of the student body to discover interests of pupils.

One school sent a questionnaire to all high school pupils asking them to mark their first, second, and third choices of vocation. The results were shown to a youth work committee of the Rotary Club who sent a representative of each chosen profession to give talks in the high school home-rooms. This led to concrete activity by the guidance committee toward planning a community-occupational survey. The school and community press reported preparatory discussions in school-community groups. Need for the survey was demonstrated by the pupils' lack of occupational information and lack of vocational planning, and by teachers' requests for information. Notice the detailed preparation in the following example:

In the Toms River Schools Community (2) a successful occupational survey was initiated and carried out through school-community coöperation. After several faculty meetings devoted to the project, pupil-parent questionnaires were distributed. These were explained and partially completed during English class periods. Typing, mimeographing, and addressing envelopes provided work for the commercial department, and pupils were released from classes during the week when interviews were held with employers. Several staff members assisted in tabulating data from the questionnaires. The interviews with employers were made by seniors on the basis of individual interests. Boys or girls choosing professions were sent to professional people; boys intending to become auto mechanics went to garage owners; members of the office practice class interviewed persons who employed clerical help.

Community coöperation was demonstrated through the publishing of stories and editorials in the local newspapers; the designating of a "Student-Employer Achievement Week" by the local township committee through favorable reception of student talks in Rotary, Lions, Kiwanis, and parent-teacher association groups. Occupational survey blanks were mailed to employers and to graduates and non-graduates of the high school, and questionnaires were distributed to pupils in grades seven to twelve, inclusive. Information was obtained on numbers employed at various jobs, personal qualities essential in holding a job, weaknesses apparent among beginning workers, and suggestions concerning school courses and services. The questionnaires were followed by personal interviews.

Interpretation of data pointed to these conclusions:

1. Overenrollment in the college preparatory course.
2. Underenrollment in the homemaking course and in some business and trade preparatory subjects.
3. Too many pupils with job interests in professional and semiprofessional fields.
4. Too few pupils with job interests in service, sales, and skilled and semiskilled fields.
5. Necessity for more thorough guidance in measuring aptitudes and in electing school subjects.
6. The need to study additions to the curriculum.
7. The percent showing no apparent relationship between pupil course and job interest was too small to cause too much concern but large enough to indicate need for more individual counseling.
8. The percent showing no apparent relationship between courses taken by graduates and their future careers did not seem high enough to cause undue alarm. The need was definite, however, to make a more complete study of graduates and one of drop-outs.
9. A close relationship between graduates' courses and careers was indicated by 68 percent and that between pupils' courses and job preferences was shown by 51 percent.
10. Of the high school subjects considered most valuable English received first place and mathematics second. Other subjects were typing, social behavior, stenography, bookkeeping, auto-mechanics, carpentry, and homemaking courses.
11. Employers included many personal qualities as important. Those considered most significant were: honesty, neatness, courtesy, punctuality, and appearance.

As a result of this survey a curriculum committee was appointed to give special consideration to adding such subjects as agriculture, sales, getting and holding a job, and new offerings in industrial arts. The school became more aware of community trends and needs, good employer-school relationships were fostered, and the placement of pupils was increased.

COMMITTEES

The following committees would appear to be essential for a successful school-community occupational survey: (1) executive, (2) publicity, (3) working, (4) field work, and (5) evaluation and activating.

The executive committee clarifies objectives, determines policies, and handles finance. The publicity committee, including representatives of

the community press, radio, television, and school personnel, makes plans to publish progress reports and interpretations of data. Working committees include an instruments committee which develops schedules, questionnaires, instruction manuals, and a file of firms or individuals to be surveyed. The field work committee plans and carries out the collection of data and makes geographical assignments for the interviewers. The evaluation and activating committee analyzes the data, makes a final written report, and formulates plans to improve the school's vocational curriculum.

CAUTION

No attempt has been made in this brief discussion of a school-community vocational survey to provide a manual for carrying out such a project. No guidance committee should attempt to initiate such a survey without studying the following literature:

1. *Community Occupational Surveys*, U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin No. 223 (1939).
2. Occupational Survey, New Rochelle, N. Y., Public Schools, June, 1939.
3. Lane C. Ash, and Walter B. Jones, *Suggestions for Making and Reporting Occupational Surveys*, Bulletin No. 339, Harrisburg Pa., Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction, 1939.
4. M. M. Chamber, and Howard M. Bell, *How to Make a Community Youth Survey*, Washington, D. C., American Council on Education, 1939.
5. *Steps in a Community Occupational Survey*, Misc. 2914. Washington, D. C., United States Office of Education, 1941.
6. Marguerite W. Zapoleon, *Community Occupational Surveys*, Bulletin No. 223, United States Office of Education, Vocational Division, 1942.

ORIENTATION AS A PROCEDURE IN GROUP GUIDANCE

Ronald, a 15-year-old ninth grader in Bryant Junior High, is planning to attend South High School next year. About the middle of his ninth year, Ronald and his parents are invited to a meeting in the auditorium to hear two visiting teachers from South High School. The first speaker outlines in detail subjects to take for college entrance and those to take for well-balanced non-college courses. The director urges each student to choose a "tailor-made" course, one to fit *him*. The second speaker, a sophomore counselor, describes the extracurricular activities at South High School and why a well-rounded student needs to participate. Before leaving the assembly Ronald and his parents are given a booklet entitled, "Planning for High School."

Ronald discusses his future high school career with his home-room teacher and together they prepare a tentative list of subjects to be taken during the next three years at South High School. He takes a test to determine his fitness for mathematics and it is sent to the high school to be scored. Sometime later Ronald makes an appointment with a South High School counselor who has come to the junior high to counsel prospective students. They discuss Ronald's plans and a program is indicated on a program card for the parents' signature.

During Ronald's last week at Bryant Junior High School he spends one morning with other members of his group at the high school. . . . The group assembled in the auditorium for a half-hour program. They are welcomed by the principal and the president of the student council and listen to a sophomore student discuss "timely tips" based on an individual experience—in this case it was on how to get along with a locker partner and what to do in the cafeteria. A screen-slide talk on "Floor Plans and Traffic Rules" was given, then the rest of the morning was spent in the study hall taking an achievement and mental maturity test. It was learned that the results of one of these tests would determine the need of reading instruction under a special reading teacher.

Next year, on the first day at South High School Ronald went with his group to the auditorium to get program cards, then they went immediately to his home-room. For the next two or three days the home-room teacher discussed rules, activities, absences, bell schedules, clothes, conduct, care of equipment—all found in a student handbook. Students saw a *How to Study* film followed by a discussion led by the class counselor. A morning home-room program was devoted to a discussion of "You and Your Record," for the purpose of emphasizing the importance of the cumulative record.

A second morning session was used to discuss extracurricular activities. Pupils assembled in small groups according to their interests. Some divisions were: audio-visual work, stage crew, forensics, athletic managers, ushers, publications, and dramatics and stagecraft. At a later date the school librarian oriented new pupils to the school library showing them resources and references. To check on how well they followed these lectures, the homework assignment for the next day's English class was given in a mimeographed form.

A day was provided for the scholarship director to explain opportunities for winning scholarships. Home-room teachers were expected to select likely prospects (14).

Here we have an example of junior-senior high school orientation. Each time a child makes a change in environment whether it be a change from the home to the school or from the school back into the

community some assistance should be given the individual in making necessary adjustments.

## The Values of Orientation Services

The feelings of strangeness, loneliness, fear—even helplessness, are known to everyone when placed in a new environment. Orientation services assist the individual in developing a "sense of belonging" in the new environment. By decreasing confusion, orientation assists the student to develop a sense of adequacy. Furthermore, it facilitates school administration by aiding the newcomer to become acquainted with the procedures of the school. In brief, by providing assistance with minor problems it may prevent the major problems from ever developing.

## Orientation in the Elementary School

Willey (43) lists four significant environmental changes to which every elementary school child is subjected. They are:

1. A change from the environment of the home to the environment of the classroom.
2. A change from the environment of the community to the environment of the school-community.
3. A change from the environment of one classroom to the environment of another classroom.
4. A change from the environment of the elementary school to the environment of the junior or senior high school.

It is the task of the guidance program of the elementary school to help the child adjust to each of these changes. Because the major share of the responsibility of the guidance program in the elementary school is delegated to the classroom teacher, it is necessary for him (1) to understand the meaning of environment, (2) to be thoroughly familiar with the child's home, (3) to be informed about the neighborhood and community in which the child spends his time when out of school, (4) to have knowledge of the entire elementary school program, and (5) to understand the type of adjustment a pupil is expected to make when he leaves the elementary school to enter the junior high school. Guidance in the elementary school will be especially concerned with assisting the child to make these major adjustments to environmental change.

In the elementary school it is important to assist the child in changing from community environment to the school-community environment. The first essential in the teacher's preparation for this is to acquire vital concern with the problems, issues, and realities of the community life in which his pupils live. It will then be easier for him to plan the curriculum in terms of experiences children have had. The two most common practices of orienting the beginning schoolchild are: (1) short summer school terms, (2) the staggered school registration plan. Kindergarten and first-grade children are given short term summer school experience where child, parent, and teacher can all become acquainted. The staggered program permits only a small portion of the school group to start at one time. The last part of the group may be admitted as late as three weeks after the first.

In many schools the problem of change from the kindergarten to the first grade has been solved by the organizing of transition groups. Children who have had a year in kindergarten but are still not mature enough to be transferred to the traditional first grade are given further developmental experiences in language, social adjustment, and experimentation.

It is a fortunate community that has a kindergarten to aid in the transition from the home to school. Through parent-teacher groups and questionnaires returned by parents an orientation plan can be initiated. Before the first day of school it is well for the teacher to know something about the children who will be under his supervision. When the child enters his classroom for the first time he should not find it too different from his own home.

Adjustment to a change of group, room, and teacher requires an integration of grades and subjects—a fusion of elements with a loss of the separate identities. Ideally, for example, the teacher continues with the same group of pupils through several years. Groups are designated by the name of the teacher or by letters—not by grades. Pupils may be moved from one group to another at any time during the year if their social maturity warrants it.

## Orientation into Junior High School

The first essential in an orientation program to junior high school is a definite understanding by sixth-grade teachers of junior high school life. Sixth-grade teachers, for example, could benefit by meeting with

seventh-grade teachers each semester to discuss what the pupils may be expected to know in arithmetic, grammar, and social studies. Individual pupils needing special attention may be discussed. Sixth-grade teachers can fill out forms describing what they have taught, where the class is weak, and offering recommendations for the receiving teachers. Handbooks can be prepared to acquaint pupils and parents with the new school and the opportunities it offers.

In one school the A-6 pupils were visited by a counselor who came to the school to get acquainted, to test, and to secure important personnel data. A B-7 student came with the counselor and announced an articulation plan to the prospective group. He also related briefly to the pupils what occurred in junior high school life. This visit was followed by visits from the junior high school administrative staff and student-body officers, who spoke on such subjects as program of studies and activities, resources of the school, courses of study, shop and home-making facilities, physical education, the sports program, opportunities for service and leadership, and social activities. The sixth-grade pupils then spent a day visiting the junior high school. They all met in the auditorium to listen to an all-pupil program consisting of numbers by the school orchestra and boys' and girls' glee club; and demonstrations from the departments—boys' physical education, girls' physical education, home-making, shops, social living, arts, and others. Home-rooms were then visited to hear a special program, including talks on the school paper, the Junior Red Cross, the Honor Scholarship Society, music organizations, public-relations council, student-service organizations, buildings, grounds, bicycles, cafeteria, and so on. The history, tradition, and customs of the school were amply discussed (40).

In another school students were absorbed into the regular pattern of the school routine through individual counseling, informal interviews, testing, and general visitation (35). A constant and continuing lookout was maintained and help tendered at any point when the pupil showed signs of emotional or other upset causing deviation in behavior or attitude.

In the fall, when pupils enter the junior high school, the plan includes the following activities and procedures:

1. Pupils are assigned in groups to their home-room teacher for a block of time amounting to about 40 percent of the school day. English and social science are usually taught during this period.

2. Individual class schedules are so constructed that the pupil is always with members of his home-room and passes with them as a group in going to the different rooms for classes. Boys and girls are separated only for industrial arts, physical education, and home economics classes.

3. Carefully planned home-room programs with topics on school adjustment problems, to which reference has already been made, are held weekly in the home-room.

4. Grade counselors counsel each pupil as early in the semester as possible and assist in helping the pupil overcome adjustment difficulties.

5. Weekly orientation parties, mixers, and discussion meetings are held in which the entire grade group with home-room teachers gather in the gymnasium during the activity period.

6. Pupils are restricted on the seventh-grade level in participation in extra-class activities during the first semester. They are introduced to the various types of activities, and they hear from student representatives of these groups during their weekly orientation meetings; but they do not become members until the second semester when adjustment is more complete.

7. The seventh-grade counselors have night meetings with groups of seventh-grade parents. The parents of two home-room groups per night are scheduled. (Parents are sent special invitations by mail.) Incidentally, this same plan is followed in the eighth and ninth grades.

### Orientation into Senior High School

The case of Ronald described on page 533 is a typical illustration of junior-senior high school orientation. The pattern is much the same in all junior high school orientation programs. The features can be summarized briefly:

1. An opportunity is afforded for incoming ninth graders to visit high school, to spend some time in various classes, to find answers to questions relative to their individual problems on course selection.

2. Pupils from the high school (e.g., Student Council officers) act as hosts to the visiting junior high members.

3. Student speakers and audio-visual materials are used.

4. There is a description of graduation requirements and course descriptions by faculty members.

5. Printed orientation programs, guides, and handbooks are available.

6. A testing program to guide counselors is used. Occasionally these tests are given during the last part of the eighth grade; sometimes they are given the ninth year.

7. Representatives are sent from the high school to the junior high—students, teachers, counselors, or all of these.

*Orientation into College*

Many high schools have attempted to orient their seniors to college education by introducing "College Day." The purpose is to inform students of the availability of further training; that is, offer as much information as possible about the various colleges they might attend. Consultants from the various colleges give a picture of the life, activities, and training at their schools. Catalogues or bulletins are studied. Because only a small minority of high school graduates will ever go to college, caution should be used in requiring the entire student body to participate in "College Day" activities. The day could well include trade schools, apprenticeship, or on-the-job training. As the reader notes, this plan would then differ little from the career conference.

A group of teachers from the Chicago public schools have formulated the following recommendations which should help to make the College Day a successful enterprise.

1. A successful College Day should be supervised by guidance personnel. Orientation should include an examination of recent college catalogues and other college literature. Representatives from colleges should come to the high schools frequently to be available for consultation, not only by high school students but by high school counselors as well.
2. The College Day schedule should be planned by a committee of high school principals, high school counselors, and college admission counselors.
3. Representatives from the various colleges should visit the high school only by invitation. This will facilitate arrangements to greet them and to schedule conferences with the students.
4. It is advisable to schedule no general assemblies for a College Day. These should be held during the previous weeks as part of the regular guidance program.
5. College representatives will appreciate specific information on time, number of pupils to be interviewed, directions to reach the high school, and names and telephone numbers of persons in charge.

## SUMMARY

Because the term "group guidance" has had so many varied meanings throughout the years this chapter was entitled "group procedures of the guidance program." The values of group procedures in the guidance program were discussed under headings of: (1) developmental values,

(2) diagnostic values, and (3) therapeutic values. Group counseling procedures are difficult to classify. There is, for example, no clear-cut point of view as to how the following activities are related to guidance: assemblies, student-councils, clubs, career days, work experience, college days, and so on. The important point is that these procedures may accomplish valuable objectives which should be included in the guidance program. The illustrative group procedures, in which opportunities for guidance may be found, included in this chapter were: the laboratory group, the assembly, the school club, and student government.

Of all the organized guidance activities, the home-room has held the most significant place throughout the last two decades. Currently, however, it is on the defensive and may eventually surrender to the core course. The purpose of the home-room should be to set up an ideal, intimate, democratic relationship between pupils and teachers in which the curriculum, extraclassroom activities, and the general guidance program might be better coördinated. The home-room can be the main counseling center where the teacher does much counseling with student and parent, or where the teacher can provide the basic data from which a professional counselor can proceed.

The core curriculum is rapidly finding its place in high schools throughout the country. Because "the core" is built around the personal problems and interests of students, much emphasis is being placed upon improved guidance and counseling at the classroom level. Other forms of organized guidance procedures are: the general guidance course of which "the exploratory course" is a common type; the regular subject organized course in which guidance units are introduced; life adjustment education which is concerned more with accomplishing the objectives of adjusting to life rather than organization; and the library, by which guidance is rendered through supervised reading.

The need for community coöperation in the guidance of groups of young people has been given much emphasis in this chapter. Illustrations of specific procedures in which opportunities for community support in guidance activities can be rendered are: the career conference (or career day); work experience in the occupations in the community; and the school-community occupational survey.

One of the most important services of the guidance program is the "Orientation Service." This service can be rendered by any school regardless of the presence or absence of professionally-trained guidance personnel. The elementary school child is in need of orientation when

he begins school in the kindergarten or first grade; when he changes from one community (or neighborhood) to another community; when he changes from one classroom to another; and when he leaves the elementary school for a higher educational level. Several concrete illustrations were given in the chapter as examples of orientation from junior high school to high school and from high school to college.

The orientation service decreases confusion, alleviates feelings of strangeness, loneliness, and fear—in short, it develops a sense of adequacy. It facilitates school administration by assisting the newcomer to become acquainted with the procedures of the school. By providing assistance with minor problems the major problems never develop.

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# Group Assistance in Learning to Adjust

## INTRODUCTION

ADJUSTMENT to life's problems requires self-analysis, self-exploration, and self-reorganization of personal experiences—all resulting in the achievement of insights and understandings.

Under some circumstances this adjustment occurs best with the assistance of a face-to-face counseling session with a professional counselor; under other circumstances it occurs best under the stimulation of a group of other people plus the counselor. This chapter discusses the new insights and the new ways of living which can result because of group influence. The counselor takes the role of teacher who guides the learner toward better control of behavior.

Under the circumstances with which we shall be concerned here, the learner is not sick in the sense that a clinical psychologist or psychiatrist is needed. Rather, the situation is one in which personal problems can be solved and in which behavior can be re-ordered educationally without resort to medical treatment.

The writers accept the philosophy that mental illness like physical illness exists in various degrees of "depth" or seriousness. No specialist, whether he be physician, psychiatrist, clinical psychologist or counselor, has given the classroom teacher or school counselor a set of criteria or guides whereby one can say "Hands off, you may do more harm than good!" The classroom teacher and school counselor will always be dealing with personalities. With normal personalities the function will

be principally preventative; with deviate personalities the functions will be therapeutic and referral. Notwithstanding, the line between school personnel counseling and professional psychiatric counseling cannot be distinctly drawn. In group counseling as with individual counseling one will notice deviant individuals who need clinical help. The teacher or school counselor must be sufficiently trained to distinguish readily between situations which are appropriate to handle and those which are beyond his skills and must be referred elsewhere.

Any teacher or counselor trained in a good, modern, school guidance program who has mastered the techniques of counseling required in a face-to-face situation with an individual student can, *and must*, apply his techniques to a group. Group counseling has until very recently received scant attention in school counseling techniques. In the next decade this phase of counseling is destined to revolutionize the guidance program as described by the individual-counseling advocates. While economy alone is a vital factor which may initiate this change, group counseling has merits and advantages which will serve as impetus.

## THE DEFINITION AND PURPOSE OF GROUP ASSISTANCE

The happiness of a child is irrevocably determined by his ability to get along in the society of his home, his neighborhood, his school, and his community. His growth and development are conditioned by the group's values and attitudes and expectancies of the child. Group assistance results from the existence of a special type of social environment in which the socially maladjusted child—that is, the child who is not living up to the standards expected of him—is placed. In his feeling of anxiety and guilt he has attempted to adjust by being abnormally active, aggressive, restless, quiescent, or defiant—all familiar behaviorisms to the classroom teacher. By being so placed in a special kind of group the individual is helped to work out his relationships and problems with other people in a realistic atmosphere of social interaction. The child is placed in a group where he can experience actual social situations—that is, where he can play and work with others, and through meaningful interaction can modify his feelings and habitual responses in a socially acceptable manner.

Actually, a group of children brought together for purposes of group stimulation is little different from a classroom group organized and conducted in a democratic manner, except that it is smaller and comprised of members having similar personality problems. Certain tech-

niques found in all democratic teaching and learning are chosen for special emphasis and direction. A certain amount of permissiveness, for example, is always present for the purpose of promoting self-reliance, self-direction, and self-government. The child also finds a place where he is thoroughly accepted by individuals who have the same problems and conflicts as he.

There is nothing particularly dramatic about this special group. Although help comes slowly, eventually the individual can adjust to himself and to others, can learn to give and accept trust, and can learn to make his own decisions and carry them out. The child can learn to accept censure, suggestions, interpretations, and sympathy from others in his group and still retain a feeling of belongingness, reassurance, and security.

## Individuals Who Can Profit by Group Stimulation

All maladjusted boys and girls cannot profit from a group therapy situation. The choice of those who can profit must be made by the teacher or counselor on the basis of judgment and experimentation. Clinical or diagnostic categories, generally, are not useful; thus the syndrome or behavior pattern should be the chief consideration. As in all school counseling if there is any degree of certainty that children are psychotic or psychopathic because of severe behavior disorders referral to a clinical psychologist or psychiatrist is imperative. Only the apparently less severe cases should be considered for special group attention; many of these will prove to be serious after a period of observation. For determining which children may profit by this group activity, two criteria are especially useful: (1) the child must have had inadequate social contacts, and (2) the child must have been unable to get along with children or have a need to express aggression. A child who fits these criteria has a desire to be accepted by and participate in a group. This genuine desire to make a place for himself in a group of his peers will curb offending behavior and tend to adapt him to the values, attitudes, and behavior of the group. In brief, the individual who can profit by group experience is one who is socially maladjusted. It is presumed that he needs adequate social experience.

Although it is impossible to describe accurately the kind of child who should be selected for this type of assistance, we can be more specific in pointing out behavior mechanisms.

*Aggressive, submissive, and suggestible children:* The aggressive

child becomes socially maladjusted when his aggression threatens other people with intent to hurt or injure. Extreme forms of aggressiveness will not respond to group pressure, but the child whose aggressiveness proceeds from intense anxiety gains considerable release from acting out his difficulties in a free, unstraining environment.

The submissive child can be guided to more self-assertive and independent action. Such a child usually withdraws or lacks the desire to participate in ordinary group activities. Certain kinds of group situations can provide such children with experiences that overcome self-absorption and fear of people.

The suggestible child who has imitated repressive or aggressive behavior of other children will imitate more desirable behavior from children in a group. Suggestibility is a symptom of dependence and lack of self-reliance; both of these symptoms usually disappear in effective group activity.

Behavior usually has become a habit by the time a child becomes socially maladjusted. These habit malformations that interfere with social adjustment can usually be corrected. Inappropriate habits of cleanliness, dress, and manners which have caused social ostracism are usually not too difficult to remove by group pressure.

*Overactive, creative, daydreaming, and egotistical children:* When the cause is not organic, an abnormally overactive boy or girl who disturbs everyone around him can be helped in group enterprises. This is especially true if the behavior has roots in anxiety, sex conflicts, feelings of inferiority, and excessive motivation. If such a child has a major interest in doing things rather than sitting still at reading, spelling, or doing number work, he will doubtless profit in a group situation in which he can use his hands, his legs—his body.

The creative child who enjoys invention, experimentation, investigation—the child who if directed appropriately will become the inventor, philosopher, artist, or scientist—will often become socially maladjusted. A group organization is well suited for such children because they can find satisfaction, group approval, and recognition through creative work.

The daydreamer who lives in fantasy comes closer to reality through expression in some concrete form, such as a painting, puppet-making, carving, and other types of manual work. Working in a group situation helps to balance or counteract the need for escaping into fantasy. The withdrawn child has built a fence around himself and appears to be

egocentric and distrustful of other people. When subjected to group pressure and social mobility such a child eventually relates himself to the world of reality. Although he appears to be self-centered, ordinarily he craves social approval. The acceptance which he receives from the group will counteract his self-protective rigidity and he will respond to others in the group.

## How to Get Started

### CHOOSE A LOCATION

The location for children who meet for group assistance is significant. For the classroom teacher the place must of necessity be an area set aside within the school, unless he is given released time for this work. For the departmental teacher, e.g., the teacher of a high school remedial reading group, the regular classroom can be used.

Occasionally a leader will discover that confinement in the meeting room may make an individual so nervous that it will foster more aggressiveness. Cramped quarters for group meetings may increase irritability and explosiveness leading to personal aggression and hostility. On the other hand, if the room is too large the motor-activity pursuits, i.e., running, jumping, yelling, may be activated. This would be the case of a playground or gymnasium (which for preliminary meetings may be ideal) where tumult will increase tension. The size of the room should fall somewhere between these extremes. The room should be well-lighted, without glass doors, and equipped with sturdy fixtures. Materials and equipment will be discussed subsequently.

### GET ALL AVAILABLE INFORMATION ABOUT THE CHILD

As in all guidance situations it is necessary to obtain all available data about the child. Data are essential in solving the problem of grouping, and in making final decisions about which children to include. Preexamined data will help to describe children as: instigators, aggressors, withdrawers, daydreamers, or as suggestible, overactive, creative, autistic, or egotistical. In no case will pure types be found, but data will help to determine proper balance of clientele. It is necessary to know whether the child will be aggressive toward others or whether he will be withdrawn and sensitive. Knowledge of the child helps the teacher or counselor anticipate attitudes and responses; thus many abnormal situations can be avoided in group activity.

## PLAN ACTIVITIES AND PROVIDE MATERIAL

It is frequently advisable to introduce activities that will help in the group educative process. In some cases it may be necessary to plan field trips, gymnastic exercises, games, or holiday parties. The leader should anticipate the possible trends of activities within the group and plan what to say or do in specific situations. Materials placed within the area will usually direct activity. Water, paint, clay, wire, wood, hammers, nails, metal and so on, are placed within easy access. For older children electrical and magnetic toys, sewing materials, crocheting, knitting, leather work, tenpins, chess, or a ping-pong table invite activity. For young children and with some types of maladjusted older children it is dangerous to have any glassware or sharp-pointed objects available.

## INITIATE THE ACTION

There can be no exact descriptions of how to plan the sessions of group endeavor. The methods will be as varied as the leaders who conduct the meetings. What shall be done and said will be determined by the children and by the skills of the leader. Miracles cannot be anticipated; progress will come very slowly even under the most experienced counselor; do not be afraid to experiment. Extreme deviates, however, should be treated by well-trained clinicians. Start where the group is by discussing subjects closest to their interests. Talk with simple language that can be easily understood and avoid making discussion a painful quiz session. Above all do not become moralistic, yet find opportunities to direct group discussion toward feelings about self and surroundings. The following general principles should be helpful in the initiation and continuation of group meetings.

## *Guiding Principles*

### THE PRINCIPLE OF PERMISSIVENESS

Essential to the effectiveness of group work is a free and permissive environment. The inhibitive and restraining pressures from the social groups who have rejected socially maladjusted children need to be removed before the child is free to make his own choices which lead to self-control, self-respect, and self-esteem. Freedom from social pressure does, however, require that the child be accepted even with his faults, shortcomings, destructiveness, and hostilities.

Permissiveness is a tool that must be used with careful discrimination. Certain boundaries and limitations are necessary. Some of these are universal enough to be specific: (1) the leader should not be challenged by disobedience, swearing, or physical attack; (2) no member of the group should be physically harmed; (3) materials in the area must not be stolen; (4) approvals and disapprovals should come from group members rather than the leader (few exceptions are necessary); (5) physical contact among group members, including the leader, is taboo; and (6) school or public property cannot be destroyed. Destruction of materials during the early stages of adjustment is frequently an expression of hostility. Essentially, the group itself will correct such destructiveness.

An individual should never be forced into the group when he does not feel like participating; individual counseling is preferable in this case. Furthermore, group spirit should not be forced on individuals by persuasion or special events. Individual freedom and more latitude in the choice of friends will help to establish a stronger group feeling.

The general technique of handling groups can be described as nondirective, with encouragement of freedom of expression. Constant judgment must be exercised by the leader regarding the extent to which he should participate. If he participates extensively, social interaction among the members is limited and the meetings may take on the character of a debate with argument and recrimination rather than tolerance for thinking.

A permissive environment removes the anxiety and guilt concerning self and thus allows the individual to live up to the inner controls established by society. Individuals cannot become autonomous self-directing personalities unless given the freedom to bring themselves under control. Permissiveness should provide this opportunity.

### THE PRINCIPLE OF PRAISE

Socially-maladjusted individuals have lost their sense of self-worth. Because a sense of failure has been the cause for personality disturbance, a feeling of success will restore the sense of self-worth. In group activities the student is offered an opportunity to create and assert within the limits of his capacity. Recognition, praise, and encouragement are given for all constructive effort. The individual is accepted and his behavior, even though antisocial, does not evoke condemnation from the leader.

Basically the individual wishes to be accepted, not excluded: thus group approval, acceptance, and praise will be the strongest checks upon self-indulgence and egotism at the expense of others. When members of a group can give generous praise to another participant in the group a most important step has been taken in the remedial process.

Unless he feels the child is unable to bear praise, the teacher or counselor should make a point of praising everything creative a child does, no matter how mediocre. The teacher praises an individual in the hope that others in the group will do the same. The successful teacher will readily note the similarity of the effect of praise in a group meeting to the effect of praise in all good teaching procedures.

## THE PRINCIPLE OF PARTICIPATION

Socially maladjusted children must experience release through some form of activity and interaction with others. The group itself will stimulate its members to activity, but the direction this activity will take can be largely determined by the materials available and by what the leader does and says.

Some children are so frightened that they are unable to face a group in any kind of conversation. In such cases materials for manual occupation can permit the child to continue to isolate himself from the others until he gains courage to make contacts. Unless he can eventually participate with other members the group situation is likely to offer little value.

Manual activity in arts and crafts is beneficial only in that it brings members together where they are stimulated to converse, coöperate, and evaluate. The presence of construction materials also provides an opportunity for the individual to make whatever he wishes. This feature is what impresses the average group member.

Individuals choose activities according to their personality behaviorisms. The quiet, withdrawn child, for example, prefers such manual activities as sewing, knitting, drawing, or painting. The aggressive child chooses hammering, bell ringing, basketball, woodwork, and so on. An indication of progress in group endeavors is that the individual not only changes his type of activity but that he increasingly chooses socializing activities. Activity balances emotional pressures by providing opportunity for emotional release by attack upon materials and by creating products which bring recognition and praise.

Free play and work have no remedial value if carried on in isolation, however. Their value lies in opportunity for social interaction which brings praise and acceptance, thus the strengthening of self-esteem.

## HOW TO STRUCTURE THE GROUP

The members of a group should be chosen carefully for the effect they will have upon one another. Among the elements to be considered in grouping children is the composition of the group in such factors as chronological age, sex, social maturity, and intelligence. Although physical size is a consideration, a two-year chronological age span is the maximum. Oversized and undersized children have difficulty in finding their way into a group.

The factor of social maturity is, of course, the basic criterion of success in group participation. Overprotection, rejection, or favoritism and the accompanying socially-maladjusted behavior are not only factors to be corrected but items to be considered in grouping. Children who have been overprotected frequently revert to such infantile mechanisms that they are unaccepted by their peers. They need to be assigned, therefore, to groups of younger children. Just as it would not be desirable to have too many aggressive members, neither is it wise to have a group entirely of self-effacing and withdrawn children. Each reticent and withdrawn child follows his own inclination to a point of his isolation. On the other hand, hostile, destructive children dominate the group and agitate others to like behavior. Ideally, the group will have an equal balance of aggressive, active, withdrawn, and average children. The intelligence quotient is not an important criterion in grouping socially maladjusted children. Social maturity is the significant factor.

In a group of young children there is little need to attend to homogeneous groups of the same sex. With early adolescent children, boys and girls should not be in the same group, at least in the beginning stages of remedial endeavor. It is advisable to keep the group small—possibly not over five or six, because a large number makes observation of each member difficult. After a number of sessions, small sub-groupings within the group will begin to appear spontaneously. A new group may center around some powerful individual who attracts the less stable personalities, or, it may form because of similar behavior such as hostility, boisterousness, or aggression. In some cases the addition of new personalities to the group may be essential.

## Qualifications of the Leader

The qualifications of a teacher or counselor enabling him to assist the group are equally divided between personality and training. Neither can be considered separately.

Most authorities agree that the leader must be sensitive not only to his own feelings but also to the feelings and needs of others. He must have a kindly attitude toward others and express this attitude in few but effective words. His temperament must be placid and expressed in a manner of quietness, relaxation, and comfort to others. His approach to life should be free from cynicism, sarcasm, distrust, and partiality. Although he must indicate a sympathetic disposition, he cannot become too emotionally involved or attached to favorites in the group. He must be alert to cues in behavior and recognize meaning in what is apparently ordinary behavior. He never appears surprised at what is said and done, receives suggestions easily, and is tolerant of all thinking.

The leader must be a scientific observer and reporter. While remaining in the background, he must be sympathetic and enthusiastic about the group's activities and endeavors, and must be able to provide the love and understanding which may be lacking in the life of a socially maladjusted child. In other words, he must represent an ideal parent, possessing all the desirable characteristics that the real parents may lack. It will frequently be necessary to introduce new activities and assist children where failure would prove detrimental to them. His praise should be generous but honest and often expressed in attitude rather than in words.

The leader's attitude should be one of acceptance, friendliness, appreciativeness, and positiveness. Within limits he must be willing to permit hostile, destructive acts, yet use good judgment in establishing permissiveness. He must have enough wisdom and judgment that he won't find himself in an untenable position; possible trends of behavior in the group must be anticipated and prepared for in advance.

Some authorities think that teachers, especially those who have had prolonged teaching experience, cannot be good leaders because the conditions under which the average public school teacher functions are frustrating and make him irritable (42). We are unwilling to place all teachers in this category, for with special training and experience many teachers should make excellent directors of group processes.

*Summary of the Principles*

1. Assistance for the individual by placing him in a group is designed for children who are unable to get along with their peers or with adults. These youngsters are problems to themselves, their classmates, their teacher, their family. Their behavior may be manifested in delinquency, aggression, or withdrawal. More specifically, they may be chronic late-comers, time-wasters, truants, fighters, stealers, or be unusually inattentive, infantile, or abnormally nervous.

2. By participation in a group, the child gains emotional adjustment through experiencing actual situations, playing with other children, and learning to live and work with others. Through social interaction his personality may be so modified that he comes to be socially accepted.

3. Group action is permissive—more so in the early than later meetings. No activity or discussion is instituted by the leader. Specific situations may call for explanations and interpretations, but these are employed only to reflect thinking and encourage insight.

4. The group should be small and structured by carefully balanced personality syndromes. Homogeneity in age, socio-economic status, physical size, and classroom status is desirable.

5. The most common activities are centered on art, handiwork, music, and puppetry. Games and holiday parties are frequently used.

6. Modification of behavior results because of group approval (rather than teacher's approval), praise, and acceptance.

7. Lasting effects require that the length of time for adjustment cannot be shorter than three months. A year would be more desirable.

*Application to Classroom Practice*

Classroom teachers and professional school counselors have accepted the task of assisting students to develop skills in understanding themselves and others as human beings—their needs, motives, and behaviors. The child's school environment consists of many youngsters like himself plus a few adults who act as leaders. For every student there are boundaries of the school group society, and within these boundaries each individual is continuously exploring to discover forces which conflict with or support his needs. Among these forces is the personality of the classroom teacher. Each pupil ascertains the strength of this force by challenging teacher-authority or by seeking approval. With the pupil group itself we also find exploration in the form of rivalries, cliques, and a general

striving for status. When his behavior is divergent from classroom group behavior, the individual feels alone, unrelated, rejected, and generally uncomfortable.

In permissive situations where emotions may be freely expressed by pupils, the teacher continuously finds himself forced to take one of several choices. Let us illustrate (29):

The teacher is about to start the phonograph when a child shouts out, "My mother wouldn't let me bring my records to school this morning!" The teacher may take one of the following responses: (1) Join the group of adults who value things more than children and say, "Well, Mother knows best!" (2) Join the child and say, "Mothers are mean sometimes, aren't they?" (3) Join neither mother nor child and say, "Who else in here wanted to do something their mother didn't want them to do?", and after listening to several responses says, "Mother sometimes treats us like we're not as grown up as we feel. Joe and Mary and Sue all feel that way."

The last response of the teacher would be making use of some of the following principles:

1. The teacher makes apparent his appreciation of community feelings. The feelings of the child are not unique because others feel the same.
2. The teacher permits the negative feelings of the child to be expressed; he accepts these feelings; these feelings are associated with those of other children.

At a later stage, junior high school perhaps, pupil-teacher planning relieves some of the traditional teacher authority, places some responsibility on the pupil, and permits forces of the peer group to exert themselves frequently. An important school objective is to increase the individual's awareness of his own relations with others, of the attitudes he arouses in others, and of the attitudes in others, and of the attitudes in himself that motivate his behavior. That teacher guidance can assist in the accomplishment of this objective is demonstrated once again by an illustration (29).

In a committee conference the group found progress blocked by a feud arising between a member and the chairman. The member began rather violently to attack the student chairman. The teacher permitted the feud to continue but next day she joined the group and remarked that the class did not seem to be moving along. The student who had initiated the attack remarked that the chairman had not organized the lesson well

enough, whereupon the teacher wondered if the fault was not one of her own for not having taken over the lesson. Another student then joined in, saying "What is a teacher for if she can't teach a class herself?" The teacher accepted this comment and said she wondered whether there were not others in the class who felt the same way. After a pause one student said, "Some people always need someone to show them how to do things." The discussion then turned to how uncomfortable anyone might feel when he wanted direction and was not getting it. "He might even get real mad and fight with some one—like Rob and Lou did," one student said. "Well, let's get back to work."

This example illustrates many procedures common to groups gathered to assist the individual:

1. A group educative procedure was blocked through the inappropriate and exaggerated expression of negative feelings.
2. The teacher did not intervene immediately but waited for signs of dissatisfaction in the group.
3. The teacher entered the discussion and accepted all expression of feelings.
4. Members of the group were encouraged to analyze the cause of the "block."
5. The members note the inappropriateness of their feelings—e.g., displaced aggression. (Pupil had feelings against the teacher rather than the chairman as indicated.)
6. The teacher accepted the attack and encouraged the expression of others who had similar feelings.
7. One of the members then gave a relatively uncritical interpretation of the meaning of the resistance behavior.
8. Subsequent discussion clarified for the group the feelings of students who were overdependent on authority. The attitude of acceptance by the students in this discussion probably helped two of the initiators to reënter the group activity with a minimum of discomfort.

## SOCIODRAMA AS A FORM OF GROUP GUIDANCE √

Sociodrama, more frequently described as role-playing, is a form of spontaneous dramatization in which individuals play a role in a specific social situation. An illustrative form of this role-playing is the problem story approach most effectively demonstrated by the Shaftels (41). In such an approach the teacher reads aloud a carefully structured story of a typical life-situation of childhood. The story has no ending, but terminates in a dilemma peak. The child-audience is then encouraged to finish

the story in role-playing sessions. A typical story may be introduced as follows:

One day Robert and Pat were walking home from school. Robert spied something appearing out of the mud and snow. One boy grabbed the object which looked like a piece of paper money. Pat, who had not found the money, grabbed the paper and said, "Let's take it into this store and ask the groceryman if it is any good." The man said, "Yes, this is a good dollar bill." Then——

This is a dramatic story posing a realistic problem which can provide great impetus for launching young people into serious thinking and discussion. In the dramatization which follows children are frank and free with their comments and so thoroughly identified with the issues and the characters that teachers can readily diagnose cultural values. Through directed discussion teachers can inculcate socially acceptable values and ideals.

### Special Values of Sociodrama

Sociodrama assists individuals to explore their feelings about the situations in life which most fundamentally shape their attitudes, beliefs, interests, and ideals. Typical problems of the family, the neighborhood, and playground can be introduced into the classroom where group decision can mold individual thought and action. If pupils happen to make a choice unacceptable to their peers or teacher, it can easily be discarded because it was only in play.

In the dramatic situation individuals are able to express their feelings about problems causing them anguish. They can then get the entire class to assist them in the solution of these problems. One writer terms role-playing "reality practice" or "reality testing" (*19*).

In real life, there is no chance to retreat once one has made a decision, or said the particular words. If what has been said or done is inappropriate, it is too bad; in such situations most people have evolved defense mechanisms which are only rarely adequate. Role-playing is remarkably useful in preparing such persons to handle personal problems by allowing them to explore on the play level some more appropriate ways of dealing with other individuals. There is no grave penalty for failure; in fact, failure is expected and accepted. . . . The most carefully analyzed generalizations can never provide this facsimile of real life. . . . Role-playing is one way of releasing the person a little so that he can explore in an unusually permissive atmosphere some new and better patterns of behavior.

*Techniques of Directing Sociodrama*

The following steps are helpful as a guide to the role-playing session: (1) a "warming up" period, (2) a selection of the participants, (3) a preparation of the audience to observe alertly, (4) a dramatization of the story, (5) a discussion of the performance, and (6) a sharing of the experience and making generalizations.

THE WARM-UP PERIOD

A discussion of the problem at hand should get the audience emotionally involved to the extent that identification with the actors can be made. Sufficient response from the members of the listening group should be obtained so they may identify themselves with such problems. The problem should be one which members of the audience should recognize, one which has baffled them, one that they feel a need to learn how to cope with.

One technique to get the audience "warmed up" is to describe the general situation in vivid details of a specific example. A story will usually do this if it represents a situation in believable and stimulating detail. When the audience feels keenly about the fate of the characters they will react keenly afterward. Say, "Perhaps some of you will want to act out ways in which the problem can be solved." When members think they may be called upon to dramatize a solution of their own, they will become more alert and attentive to all details.

SELECT THE PARTICIPANTS

During the warm-up period the teacher can detect those who identify with the various roles. Individuals who indicate antisocial solutions will provide opportunity for the exploration of such a solution. Individuals who typify characters in the story may be selected for an opposite role. This provides an idea of "how the other person feels." Individuals may be selected because they need to identify with the role. If a child is chosen who will give an adult-oriented enactment, all further exploration of how children actually do think and feel in such situations will be terminated. In certain cases after a thorough investigation of the pupil's honest feelings about the problem, the leader may then turn back to the child, who will give an answer which is mature and acceptable to most adults.

Although set speeches and detailed plotting are undesirable the actors have a brief session to plan what they are going to do. The more completely spontaneous role-playing can be, the more likely will it reveal the immediate reactions to the problem.

### THE AUDIENCE IS PREPARED TO OBSERVE THE DRAMA

The amount of meaning an audience derives from observing the drama is dependent largely upon how well it is prepared to observe. Discussion of the characters, how they feel, and a reminder that any member will have a chance to reënact the sociodrama will usually be sufficient. The members may have ideas about solutions which they believe are more appropriate than the ending now offered.

### THE SITUATION IS DRAMATIZED

The role-players enact their interpretation to any length they desire whether the time be brief or extended. Mixed feelings about the solution or noting many sides to the question may require a longer time. Nevertheless, this is insignificant if the verbal expression and action are spontaneous. Dramatic perfection is not the objective; permissive language and gesture are more important than dramatic skill. The actors should be helped to understand that the way an actor portrays a role has no reflection upon him as a person. He will not be condemned by either leader or audience because of his interpretation.

### THE DRAMA IS DISCUSSED AND EVALUATED

The discussion should be directed to how well the problem was solved, how well the performers reacted to all situations, how well the idea was dramatized. Suggestions on how to solve the problem more adequately are welcomed. The role-players who tried to solve the problem are told of different and possibly better ways of dealing with the problem. The audience is continuously weighing the merits of a variety of solutions. The teacher will readily recognize in such situations an opportunity to teach children the steps of problem solving: (1) defining and redefining the problem, (2) considering alternative approaches, (3) weighing the consequences of each possible alternative, (4) choosing new alternatives on the basis of wider considerations and analyses, and (5) testing a choice of solution for its validity.

## THE SITUATION IS REËNACTED

Evaluation is followed by further attempts to reënact the situation. The great value in role-playing is that solutions to a problem may be determined by insight or by as much trial and error as necessary. Actors play their role over and over again until sufficient practice at facing problems culminates in a satisfactory solution. Further action occasionally needs stimulation by asking questions, by selecting another pupil to take a role, or by cutting the scene short and starting class discussion. Switching roles is an excellent procedure. Switching back and forth from acting to discussing to acting again is also an effective learning procedure.

## SHARE THE EXPERIENCE AND MAKE GENERALIZATIONS

After the role-playing session is finished the audience can explore consequences of behavior related to the situation, perhaps discover that the situation dramatized is not uncommon. Frequently the most disturbed and anxious in the group discover that personal problems confronting them occur to other people, too. Unconsciously the discussions help participants acquire attitudes and values which condition their behavior. In final generalizations, principles of conduct made by his own peers influence a participant greatly because these principles are not offered in a spirit of moralization or preaching. In a classroom, discussion by pupils is more important than remarks from the teacher. In the role-playing situation it is preferable to permit action and discussion first and generalizations, including teacher-opinion, last.

### EXAMPLE OF SOCIODRAMA IN ACTION (21)

1. The teacher sensitizes the class to the need for deeper insights into the problems of family living.

*Teacher:* The problems of modern family life have maintained our interest to date. We have examined changes in family living during the last fifty years and have found how the patterns of parent-child conflicts are different today than those of yesterday. We have been amused and disturbed at how petty parent-child conflicts can be and that although certain conflicts are inevitable, understanding between parent and child can be improved. Today we are ready for a deeper look into parent-child relations.

2. The warm-up.

*Teacher:* Let's imagine our family is father, mother, and a young adolescent girl of say twelve or thirteen years of age. What might be a typical problem for this small family?

*Member:* Her parents think the girl is too young to wear make-up.

*Teacher:* What kind of a family might this be?

*Member:* Middle-class, middle-aged, owners of a shoe store in a small town. The girl is a cry baby and tell fibs. The father has a soft mustache and smokes a big pipe; he wears suspenders; he is a Deacon of the church; he is worried about the behavior of kids.

3. The selection of participants.

*Teacher:* Now who'll take the parts? Whom do you suggest for the role of the girl? (Three characters are selected to take the part of father, mother, and daughter.)

4. Preparing the audience to observe alertly.

*Teacher:* We'll give the players about two minutes out in the hall in order for them to rough out plans for depicting a family conflict. During the act let's keep notes on aspects of effective or ineffective parenthood. When the players return they will act as they, themselves, would in such a situation. (The players return.)

*Teacher:* What are your plans?

*Actor:* We have decided to be in a living room shortly after supper. Father is reading a paper and the daughter does not enter until after father and mother have talked a bit.

5. Dramatization of the story.

*Teacher:* O.K., let's go.

*Mother:* (enters) Mmm! that is nice music. Going to be home this evening?

*Father:* Uh-huh. What is Mary getting ready for?

*Mother:* She's going skating with Sunny Morse.

*Father:* Be sure to tell her to get home early. Kids aren't like the way they were when we were kids. They're on the street at all hours.

*Mother:* (Nods as though it is an old story. Mary enters.)

*Mary:* Good-night, Mom. Good-night, Pop.

*Mother:* Have a good time. Your father says he wants you home promptly at nine.

*Father:*    And we mean nine! What's that on your face? Rouge?

*Mary:*     No it isn't. I just washed my face and rubbed hard with a towel.

*Father:*    It's paint! You look like a painted woman!

*Mary:*     Oh Daddy! All the kids wear it. They would laugh at me . . .

*Father:*    So, it's more important what they think than what your father
            and mother say? I want you to wash your face!

*Mary:*     Never mind, I'm not going. (On verge of tears)

*Mother:*    I agree with you about the paint but I don't think that makes
            Mary any less trustworthy.

*Father:*    Why, she denied that she had the stuff on, a few minutes ago!
            *That* was a lie, wasn't it?

*Mary:*     (Begins to sob.)

*Mother:*    Father was too harsh. Never mind, Mary. Stop crying. There,
            there . . .

*Father:*    (Beginning to retreat) I didn't mean that you could never wear
            it. Maybe when you're old enough you can wear it. Now
            stop crying. Well maybe it won't bother to wear a little bit.

*Mary:*     (Rises and goes out of the room.)

6. A discussion of the performance.

*Teacher:*   Let's first list the behavior that is typical of the father.

*Members:*  1. He is not aware of modern styles.
           2. He is inconsistent.
           3. He is emotionally biased.
           4. He does not understand the girl's conflict in loyalty between
              her parents and her friends.

*Teacher:*   What about the girl?

*Members:*  1. She values the judgment of friends more than parents.
           2. She wants to belong to the group.
           3. The parental pressure is too severe.
           4. She is showing signs of snobbery.

7. A sharing of the experience and making generalizations.

After a vigorous discussion as to whether the father could change his
behavior the following behavior changes are recommended:

1. The father should have and state a better reason than "his own wish"
   for asking the daughter to stop wearing lipstick and rouge.

2. He needs an accurate conception of the present mores of youth, and
   should indicate to his daughter that he can trust his information.

3. He should be more consistent, since his inconsistency is confusing the
   girl. Part of his change in that respect can be taken care of by making
   sure that he does not take a stand to which he feels he may not be able
   to give full support.

Generalizations:

1. One of the most important conflicts between today's parents and children is a cultural one—disagreement between past and present standards.
2. Parents can push so hard that their children are forced to tell lies.
3. Attempts at changing behavior in a family setting are complicated by the expectation that the rest of the family puts upon you to behave the way you have been doing in the past.

## OBSERVATION OF PROCEDURES IN GROUP DYNAMICS

Group dynamics are present in every school group, whether the group be dominated by an autocratic teacher or whether the action be entirely generated by students. Ideally, group dynamics can best be observed in a problem-centered group where people are working, thinking, and achieving together in some common endeavor.

In most group problem-solving meetings there are certain general patterns of processes which can be analyzed and observed. Six processes are basic (4:7):

1. Members must understand one another. There must be a common language, a common definition of the situation, a common feeling and motivation, and a common sharing of experience.
2. There must be some agreement concerning what is important.
3. The control of the group must be exercised on a coöperative basis.
4. Efforts and skills must be used by individuals in the group to produce changes in the situation and to avoid frustrations.
5. Group members must be able to distribute pleasures.
6. The group must be able to attain a balance. In other words, there must be free and unrestrained discussion of all issues.

### Roles Played by Group Members

A group member can participate so as to: (1) facilitate the group task by defining the problem, coördinating group effort, or making suggestions in solving the problem; (2) strengthen, regulate, or maintain group efficiency; and (3) promote individual interest which is not relevant to the group. If he takes a role placing him in the first category he may be described as an: initiator-contributor, information seeker, opinion seeker, information giver, opinion giver, elaborator, coördinator, orientor, evaluator-critic, energizer, procedural technician, or recorder. When he takes a role to build and maintain the group, he may be

described as an: encourager, harmonizer, compromiser, gatekeeper and expediter, standard setter, group-observer, commentator, and follower. If he seeks individual goals aside from group interest he may be described as an: aggressor, blocker, recognition-seeker, self-confessor, playboy, dominator, help-seeker, or special-interest pleader.

Upper elementary and junior and senior high school pupils can learn to analyze group processes to discover how the roles played by members of a group can facilitate or impede progress. The experience of one teacher illustrates what can be done with this technique.

*After a discussion period, I asked the class to describe instances when pupils had helped the discussion move along and then to describe times when others had hindered it.* The class offered these ideas:

1. Betty always nods her head when I recite so that I feel encouraged to continue expressing my ideas.
2. When I couldn't express my opinion clearly, George did it for me.
3. There are a few boys who always try to start an argument.
4. Some people spend so much time talking about themselves that the rest of us don't get a chance to say anything.
5. Sometimes we get off the subject.
6. A few people sit back and let the rest of us do the work. We need their opinions too.

The roles played by these people as well as additional ones were then listed as follows: (1) the comforter, (2) the idea-giver, (3) the blocker, (4) the "do-nothinger," (5) the attention-seeker, (6) the summarizer, (7) the tension-breaker, (8) the clarifier, and, (9) the one who keeps us on the beam.

During the next discussion period, several pupils volunteered to act as observers and keep a record of how the group functioned. *It was surprising to see how quickly pupils began to recognize these roles and play the ones that helped the group process. Even so, a year passed before they were skilled in this democratic procedure.* But by that time they could satisfactorily conduct not only class discussions but also their class meetings, which previously had been productive only when the teacher had played a dominating role (46).

## The Theory of Play Therapy

Play therapy is based on the assumption that in play activity the child has an opportunity to "play out" feelings and problems just as an adult can "talk out" his difficulties. The use of toys and other media encourages the child to ascribe his own feelings to objects, thus deflecting certain forces which contain potential trouble into channels of fantasy.

Accumulated feelings of tension, frustration, fear, aggression and other emotions repressed in everyday relationships find expression. Through experience of imaginative identification the child relives his experiences and learns to control his emotions or abandon them, to accept responsibility for his behavior, and to conquer unresolved conflict. With this explanation it is clear that the amateur or pseudo-psychiatrist should exercise care and reserve judgment in studying and treating the child through his play behavior. Above all, it is nothing less than quackery for the classroom teacher to be guided in his work by such psychiatric theory as Freudian symbolism or Adlerian "will to power."

## Techniques of Play Therapy in a School Situation

### HOW TO START

The starting point with play therapy is the same as all other techniques of helping the child to adjust, i.e., obtain as much information about the child as possible. Did the mother want the child? Did the mother anticipate the child with pleasure? Is the mother's attitude ambivalent, i.e., oscillating between rejection and affection? Does the mother overprotect the child, i.e., have exaggerated "concern and anxiousness for the child's welfare and safety"? The leader must regard play as an adjunct to other techniques; any improvement in the children's behavior can never be attributed to play activity alone.

Set apart in the classroom an area which may be used as the play space. This may be a corner of the room, an adjoining room, a special section of the floor, or even a limited area used for other purposes, e.g., the library table.

Provide play materials. These may be toys, clay, plasticine for molding, paints, pencils, crayons, cans, water, sand, building materials, toy animals, toy soldiers, and masks. The most important material will be dolls in family groups, dolls' houses, and dolls' furniture.

### WHAT TO DO

Establish rapport with the child by developing friendly relationships. This develops as the treatment continues but at the outset certain boundaries and framework must be established. The play area boundary must be drawn, for example, and necessary regulations made regarding the destruction of school property. Once the framework is understood, however, the child must be given complete freedom to do and say what he

wishes. In the play area the child must be made to feel he is important and that he has complete command of the situation. No one tells him what to do or what to say. In short, there are no mandates, rebukes, restraints, criticisms, disapprovals, or intrusions. At times the teacher or specialist assumes responsibility for guidance and interpretation and at other times leaves responsibility and direction to the child.

Permissively, through a type of free association technique, the child expresses himself. It is not sufficient, however, to permit the child to express himself without some assistance. The teacher must be sensitive to what the child is feeling and expressing, and attempts to reflect back to him his emotionalized attitudes. He indicates that he understands and accepts him continuously in his shames, his guilts, his fears, and his inferiorities. At times he reassures, interprets, evaluates, probes, sympathizes, or merely reflects back what the child says. Above all, he does not hurry the process because he knows improvement is slow and at times scarcely discernible.

## WHAT TO LOOK FOR

Is the child's play abnormal? The play of a maladjusted child differs from that of a normal child in many ways—his approach to toys, his behavior during play, and his emotions during play. Is the play lively and freely expressed? Solemn and inhibited? Are emotions impulsive, uncontrollable, compulsive?

What is the depth of emotion? Does the child tend to become more excited as the play continues? Does the child become so excited that he appears to lose control? For example, Bill started a colored picture, then continued by mixing more and more colors, piling them on top of one another, splashing them over the table, and finally spreading paint on the chair and table.

What is the degree of maturity? Does his play appear to be appropriate for his age? Does he remain at an immature level for a long period? Neither the level of play, the material used, nor nature of play activity can be used for diagnostic purposes alone. These may be the result of poverty, overcrowded living quarters, and lack of toys. With experience, however, a teacher can tell the difference between normal and abnormal behavior.

How does the child choose toys? Is the choice immature? Sophisticated? Influenced by adult standards? Some children choose to play in

water for weeks at a time. The rejection and selection of play materials or refusal of certain types of play are of significance in the diagnosis of the disorder from which the child suffers.

Is the child overanxious? A characteristic of the anxious child is a strong inhibition of play activity. Some children may appear hesitant in touching play materials or unable to do anything with them.

Does the child participate in constructive activity? Disturbed children would rather destroy than construct, and this tendency persists for an indefinite time; normal children will eventually create. The abnormal child is unable to stop his destructiveness and although no observable emotions may appear during destructiveness there may be strong feelings of guilt, tension, overexcitement, and a tendency toward rapid fatigue.

Can the child attend? Does the child run rapidly from one toy to another? Can he stay at one play activity for any length of time? Does he appear to be beseiged with ideas?

Are there obsessional patterns? Does the child seem unable to leave off playing with the same toys? Does he repeat the same pattern of play? Does he scorn untidy paintings and carefree fantasy? Does he decide that dolls' houses and sand tray are only for babies? Does he deny being afraid? Does he scorn affectionate approaches? Does he become stubborn and silent in the face of opposition rather than exhibit anger or rebellion? Is he secretive, reticent, and isolated? Does he have a compulsive need to be clean? Does he appear to be particularly harsh?

Two general approaches will be recognized in the foregoing descriptions of play. The one may be called "release activity" in which play is used to release the child's feelings. No attempt is made to produce insight by direction in interpretation. The final result is a blend of releases and an insight which modifies social attitudes, diminishes the urge for aggression, and erases feelings of insecurity and inferiority. The other may be called "directed activity" in which the play procedure is planned, the stage is set, and the child is more or less restricted in what he does and in the materials he uses. Attention is given to spontaneous responses and directing these responses so the child will gain insight into his difficulties.

### Principles of Play Therapy Which Support the Education Process

The optimum conditions required of a classroom teacher are to establish an atmosphere of calmness, permissiveness, and opportunity to learn

to live happily with his classmates. The teacher accepts the child as he finds him and although he must set the framework and boundaries he leaves specific activity and expression entirely to the pupil. As a summary, we might list some of the principles of play therapy which might make the education process more effective (36).

There is no one kind of effective play; the many approaches depend upon the pupil, teacher, and available space. The leader develops a warm and friendly relationship with the child, devoid of restricting emotional tensions. He relieves the child from emphasis on rigid attention discipline, formalized classrooms, unmeaningful materials, drill techniques, lack of opportunity for free expression, threat of grades, and maladjusted teachers. The teacher genuinely accepts the child and recognizes *that all behavior is shaped by past experiences, his present situation,* and his hopes and desires for the future. Teachers who believe this can never seriously reject or blame a child for misbehavior. The teacher recognizes that each child is unique; that his reactions in a play situation will be different because of his body structure, metabolic rate, mental capacity, differential growth rate, attitudes and values, familiar relationships, and unusual experiences.

The teacher develops a relationship of permissiveness which allows the child to express his feelings freely. Pupils act out their feelings and reflect their own inner world in freely-chosen play. The play time is strictly the child's time and he is free to do just as he chooses. The child is allowed his own pace toward reorientation; that is, the teacher does not try to hurry the activity. The teacher has a firm belief in the child's ability to solve his problems if given an opportunity to do so. Limits are set which anchor the play to the world of reality and enable the child to assume the responsibility in the relationship. The child is relieved of all social pressures but some limits are established, for instance jumping out of the window, hitting the teacher or peers, and so on are taboo. In education we need less dictatorial and more democratic planning procedure. When the teacher maintains real and genuine respect for the child and his ability, and works and plans coöperatively with him, then the child begins to utilize the most effectual long-range educational procedure. This means discarding the old concept of preconceived objectives in education and replacing it with the concept which allows a maximum contribution of the individual in the group and formulating the objectives *of* the group *by* the group.

## SUMMARY

Adjustment to life's problems requires self-analysis, self-exploration, and self-reorganization of personal experiences—all resulting in the achievement of insights and understandings. In this chapter we have described situations in which the child is placed in a group where he can experience actual social situations—that is, where he can play and work with others, and through meaningful interaction modify his feelings and habitual responses in a socially acceptable manner. The child learns to accept censure, suggestion, interpretation, and sympathy from others in his group and still retain a feeling of belongingness, reassurance, and security.

All maladjusted boys and girls cannot be helped by being placed in a group situation. Only the apparently less severe cases should be accepted; many of these will prove to be serious after a period of observation. Two criteria are especially useful: (1) the child must have had inadequate social contacts, and (2) the child must have been unable to get along with children or have a need to express aggression. A child who fits these criteria will have a desire to be accepted and participate in a group.

Certain suggestions helpful in initiating the activity were indicated: (1) choosing a location for the treatment, (2) getting all available information about the child, (3) planning activities and providing adequate materials, and (4) initiating the action. Three important guiding principles of group endeavor were described as: (1) the principle of permissiveness, (2) the principle of praise, and (3) the principle of participation.

The members of a group should be selected carefully for the effect they will have upon one another. Among the factors to be considered in grouping children, the most important are chronological age, sex, social maturity, and intelligence. Oversized and undersized children have difficulty in finding their way into a group. Just as it would be undesirable to have too many aggressive members, it is also undesirable to constitute a group entirely of self-effacing and withdrawn children. Though rarely achieved, the ideal group is one which would have equal balance of aggressive, active, withdrawn, and average children.

The qualifications of the group leader are significantly related to the success of a group method. Most authorities agree that the leader should

be: (1) sensitive to feelings, (2) a scientific observer and reporter, (3) accepting, friendly, appreciative, and positive.

In this chapter sociodrama was described as a special form of group activity and quite adaptable to classroom instruction. Sociodrama, or spontaneous role-playing as it is sometimes called, assists individuals to explore their feelings about the situations in life which most fundamentally shape their attitudes, beliefs, interests, and ideals. In the dramatic situation individuals are able to express their attitudes about problems which are causing them anguish. Suggestions and discussion from the audience can be helpful to the actors in striving for social acceptance.

The following steps were presented as helpful guides in conducting sociodrama: (1) a warming-up period, (2) a selection of the participants, (3) a preparation of the audience to observe alertly, (4) a dramatization of the story, (5) a discussion of the performance, and (6) a sharing of the experience and making generalizations.

Discussions were also directed to group dynamics. Ideally, group dynamics can best be observed together in terms of some common endeavor. Although we cannot review all the specific roles an individual can play in a group, three general roles can be cited: (1) the role of facilitating the group task; (2) the role of strengthening, regulating, or maintaining group efficiency; and (3) the role of promoting individual interest which is not relevant to the group.

The theory of play therapy is similar to that of the other group situations and is based on the assumption that in play activity the child has an opportunity to "play out" feelings and problems just as certainly as an adult can "talk out" his difficulties. The teacher or counselor should exercise and reserve judgment in studying and helping the child through his play behavior.

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PART V

RECORDS AND EVALUATION

# Records and Reports in the Guidance Program

## The Purpose of Records and Reports

RECORDS and reports are an integral part of the personnel and instruction program and should, therefore, be based on and expressed in terms of all objectives of education. They provide measures of estimates of the student's ability to meet life's cultural, economic, health, and social opportunities, and problems as they affect the realization of educational aims.

From the faculty point of view records and reports contribute to their understanding of each student. From the student's point of view, records and reports assist him in understanding and accepting the strengths and weaknesses of his abilities and learning. Thus, for the student and his teachers records and reports provide a basis for evaluating status and progress in relation to educational goals. Through them status and progress can be made known to student, parents, schools, colleges, prospective employers, and other agencies.

## Developing a System of Records and Reports

The key to a successful system of records and reports is coöperative and continuous planning by all who use them. The development of a good system proceeds simultaneously with, and as an integral part of, the development of the total educational program. Because the record must be concerned with the whole school history, from kindergarten through college, coöperation is essential from all personnel of the entire school

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system. Furthermore, business, industry, and community agencies should assist in expanding the records needed to help the student make a successful transition from school or college to life work and community living. Records and reports are necessary in the planning of continuous experience from school to full participation in the civic and industrial life of the community.

The building of a records system for a given school begins with a study of the nature and purposes of the school and of the pupil. Needs of children must be identified and information gathered to determine the extent to which the curriculum is meeting them. Accumulation of evidence with respect to realizing educational objectives requires a system of record-keeping far more extensive than test scores and grades. Recorded evidence of a school's efficiency must reveal numerous interrelated factors in the student's development. It will include home background, general abilities, special abilities, progress in skills and knowledge, work experience, community service, quality of thinking, special interests, attitudes and beliefs, social competence and emotional adjustment, health status, physical growth and energy output, genuineness of purpose and level of aspiration, and life's values.

### BASIC GUIDING PRINCIPLES FOR DEVELOPING A RECORD SYSTEM

A convenient classification of basic principles for developing a record system has been summarized by Traxler (*22:203*). His principles along with certain revisions by the writers appear as follows:

1. A comprehensive and detailed system of cumulative personnel records is necessary for the proper functioning of the modern school.
2. The purpose of personnel records is to improve the instruction and guidance of each individual pupil. They present evidence concerning a student's achievement of each of the general and special objectives of the school.
3. Records should be continuous over the whole school history from the kindergarten to the junior college and should follow the individual from school to school.
4. Records should be readily accessible to the entire family. A pupil, too, should have access to his own records; he should, however, not have access to the records of others. Teachers soon become disinterested if records are unavailable, incomplete, and difficult to understand.
5. Records should be simple and well-organized. Data should be on one central card or set of cards in such a way that they may be com-

prehended in a few moments of study. Clarity and convenience are enhanced by proper classification.

6. Records should be high in reliability, validity, and comparability. This requires that all data valuable for guidance should be comprehensive and interrelated; to omit data concerning one critical area of development is to invalidate the meaning of other data.

7. Records should be uniform in type throughout a local system. Continuity of form and content throughout the school system beginning with the pupil's school entry and following through to the highest grade in the local system facilitates coördination.

8. Records should provide for a minimum of repetition.

9. Records should be built upon a study of the nature and purposes of the school and of the pupil. This means each record system will be tailored to the program and institution in which it is to be used.

10. The cumulative record and the forms used in collecting data for it should all be planned with meticulous care.

11. Records should be accompanied by a detailed manual of directions.

12. There should be a natural and logical relationship between the information on reports made to the parents and the information recorded for purposes of permanent record; this relationship should be considered in planning both types of forms.

13. The record system should not be static; it must be revised frequently, as the school's theory of education changes. Records and reports are closely related to evaluation; evaluation of the school's program must be continuous.

14. A program of teacher education should be inaugurated in the use and interpretation of these records. Unfortunately, the professional preparation of many teachers does not include such training. In most cases in-service training is essential.

To these principles as formulated by Traxler the authors would add the following:

15. Records and reports should be coöperatively planned, completed, and used. Within reasonable limits students themselves should participate in the record-keeping. If the development of records is a coöperative venture, the record system will be useful to administrators, teachers, counselors, and students.

16. Records should require a minimum of clerical time and ability.

## Types of Records and Reports

Even though superficial, a classification of records and reports is essential for filing and location. Early in the planning period some general

agreement must be made by the faculty as to the most convenient classification.

The classification may proceed according to: (1) function, (2) filing arrangement, (3) nature of centralizing unit, and (4) permanency. According to function, for example, Traxler (22) groups records into (1) forms dealing with registration and classification of pupils, (2) attendance records, (3) routine permits and passes, (4) reports to parents, (5) health and physical-training records, (6) special and cumulative-record cards, and (7) reports to colleges and standardizing agencies.

## ACCORDING TO FUNCTION

The early classification used by Bristow and Proctor (2:410) may be helpful to some schools. Their categories are presented with supplemental explanation in subsequent order:

1. Forms dealing with registration cards, pupils' program cards, course-of-study cards, class lists, forms showing distribution of marks, forms of application for change of course, and forms used in granting permit to change course.
2. Attendance records. These include teacher's daily attendance report, high school admission card, and attendance investigation card.
3. Routine permits and passes. Included here would be brief forms for routine permits such as a pass to the library, a permit to make up lessons missed because of absence, or permission for early dismissal.
4. Reports to parents. These reports inform the parent on work covered by student, his accomplishments and growth, deficiency in scholarship, absence and tardiness, conduct, and suspension.
5. Health and physical training records. In this category would be found forms for reporting to a physician, forms for the school nurse to use in recording health inspection, certificates of disability, records of routine medical examinations, and pupils' permanent health record cards.
6. Special and cumulative records. These are of a permanent nature and accumulate information on the pupil from year to year as he progresses from the elementary school through high school.
7. Reports to colleges and standardizing agencies. These include transcripts of credits, certificates of recommendation to college personnel, and rating blanks.

Another classification of records and reports is suggested by Erickson and Smith (7:151). These writers would classify record forms essential

to the functioning of an effective guidance program into "office records" and "counseling records." Office records contain pupil data that are kept in the school office or other central depository in the school. These are frequently organized under the term "cumulative record." Counseling records are those retained by counselors for immediate use in conducting pupil interviews. These records become more numerous than do office records and will include such forms as personal data sheet, plan sheet, job-analysis charts, growth and development charts, self-analysis blanks, referral blanks, interview summary blanks, anecdotal record form, and a variety of other data not amenable to set record forms.

## ACCORDING TO FILING ARRANGEMENTS

The arrangements for filing may be made according to a centralized or decentralized system. In a centralized system all records are kept in the principal's office; in a decentralized system each member of the school staff keeps records which pertain to his own work in his own classroom or office. A system retaining features of both centralization and decentralization is the most desirable. If the school has professional counselors in addition to regular classroom teachers these counselors will have records in their offices more numerous and varied than those found in the principal's office. Many classroom teachers, especially the junior and senior high school "core teachers" and the elementary school teachers, will want files of student information in their own classrooms.

The counselor and teacher generally prefer a letter-size, two-page manila folder which becomes a kind of packet in which can be filed such material as anecdotes, correspondence with parents or other teachers, interview notes, visiting-teacher reports, and sample products of the child's work. These records will be far more detailed than the usual cumulative record found in the principal's office.

The writers favor decentralization to the point where the distribution does not harm the student. Records should be immediately available to those who are associated most with the student and thus will have most influence on his life. Unless records accomplish the objectives of education they have no justification for existence.

## ACCORDING TO THE NATURE OF CENTRALIZING UNIT

It is assumed that any record system will require evaluation and summary of data from time to time and that the summaries be centralized.

Generally the centralized unit on which summaries are made is the cumulative record. The nature of this record governs the classification of data somewhat. The best centralized unit provides for maximum information in a minimum space, minimum clerical work, and display of significant facts for quick interpretation. Froehlich (8:152) describes three general types of cumulative record: (1) the packet or folder-type where a variety of record cards are kept together; (2) a single card or folder upon which all data are recorded; and (3) a combination of these two, in which part of the information is recorded on the folder and the remainder is filed inside.

The packet-type is a plain file folder and holds the various record cards. A different color for each insert makes it easier to locate desired information. Some schools mimeograph the inserts for experimental use; when they discover a satisfactory form they have it printed. Schools use a combination of printed and other forms. For example, scholarship records and social history forms are printed, while summary profiles of tests are mimeographed by commercial students; other forms such as health cards, student questionnaires, summary profiles, which accompany standardized tests, and records of interviews are all filed in a plain folder bearing only the student's name.

Many schools prefer the single card or folder-type unit on which all information is recorded. The single card unit adopted on a statewide basis greatly facilitates transfer of information. Criticism of the inflexibility of such a card can be met by adding a folder to hold such additional information as autobiography, anecdotal records, and questionnaires. The use of this supplemental folder makes it possible to purchase a prepared and printed cumulative record form.

ACCORDING TO PERMANENCY

Some forms and records are used for an immediate purpose such as an admittance to class after an absence or tardiness. Anecdotal records made by the classroom teacher can be summarized frequently, and the original destroyed. No stringent rule can be established for determining what records shall be kept or destroyed; thus the practice must be left to the judgment of the counselor or teacher. When a comprehensive cumulative record is maintained on single cards, the teacher's records are summarized and transferred to this record. The original forms will then become less important. Blanks securing information about students, reports from other schools, pupil ratings and estimates, and forms for

pupils to use in stating their vocational interests are examples of usual semipermanent record forms.

## Miscellaneous Illustrative Forms and Records

Space does not permit us to describe in detail the numerous record forms used by schools. The numerous examples of permits, passes, attendance reports, admission cards, certificates, credit transcripts, rating blanks, data sheets, summary sheets, plan sheets, etc., would require a large volume for detailed description. We shall, therefore, use several miscellaneous record forms for illustrative purposes.

### RECORDS OF INTERVIEW NOTES AND SUMMARIES

The counselor will want a blank on which can be recorded certain significant data for the permanent record in the form of notes or an interview summary. If the interviews center around social-emotional problems, the notes will be more detailed than those recorded for interviews concerning educational-vocational problems.

Some counselors prefer to use a check-list form on which can be found the names of counselee and counselor, date, hour of interview, referring agent or agency, stated reasons for interview, counselee's statement of his problem, major topics of discussion during the interview, and space to write brief predictions, future needs, progress of adjustment, and outcomes.

### STUDENT PLAN SHEETS

The usual plan sheet is used for recording a student's program of studies. Provisions are made for changes in selections, for recording grades in each subject, for accumulated units of credit, and for recording the results of tests. This sheet is filed for use during the student's stay in school; and at his leaving, the results are summarized and transferred to a permanent record.

### PERSONAL DATA SHEETS

These forms are used for recording important personal data about pupils. Unless carefully planned, the data will duplicate other records; in some schools they are the only cumulative record. Professional counselors and classroom teachers find the personal data sheet (blank) a valuable aid for program planning. Inasmuch as each school should devise its own blank, no standard form can be suggested. A typical per-

sonal data sheet would contain such items as: name, sex, address, date and place of birth, race, height, weight, handedness, foreign languages spoken, information about parents, names and ages of brothers and sisters, relatives living at home, recreations, hobbies, club memberships and participations, vacation trips, financial problems, subjects liked, and so on. These items are not all-inclusive, but a sufficient number are listed to illustrate how closely the sheet may resemble other data recorded elsewhere in the school records.

### SELF-ANALYSIS BLANKS

The self-analysis blank can be used to obtain information about previous training, background, school grades, sociability, hobbies, leisure-time activities, mechanical and clerical interests and abilities. Typical questions are: How good is your health? What kind of impression do you make on other people? How do you spend your leisure time? What are your favorite interests and hobbies? What magazines do you like to read? If you could have one wish granted, what would it be?

A self-analysis blank should be used with reserved judgment. Students have a tendency to overrate themselves on desirable personal qualities or underrate themselves on undesirable qualities.

### THE CUMULATIVE RECORD

In preceding paragraphs several references have been made to the cumulative record of the student. This record is of such significance that it merits additional discussion.

The cumulative record is an account of the child's school history which begins with his entrance into the elementary school and continues until he leaves school. In some cases it may be continued for a period after he leaves school, it can contain such information as type, tenure, and adjustment to employment.

Traditionally, the cumulative record has been a single card that follows the pupil through twelve grades, and on which has been recorded such items as scholarship, withdrawal, home conditions and family history, test results, social and character ratings, and health status. Made to fit the letter-size file, the popular Educational Records Bureau's Cumulative Record Card suggested by the American Council of Education offers many improvements. Test results on this record are shown in both tabular and graphic form. The graphic form indicates results in

terms of percentile ratings arranged according to the sigma scale. An excellent feature of this card is space on the back for information about atypical behavior, mental and emotional aspects of personality, home influences and coöperation, physical maturity, extracurricular activities and interests, accomplishments, and work experience. Less emphasis is placed on subjects, credits, and marks; more emphasis is placed on behavior descriptions and evaluation of personal qualities. Those who use the single card folder argue that information on loose sheets makes the accumulation of information unwieldly. Even when the folder has separate compartments for different kinds of data, recording and utilization become difficult. The cards cannot be consulted, for example, without removing the whole folder from the file; it is time-consuming to take the whole folder out of the file to get one or two items of information about a pupil. Teachers soon avoid such cumbersome arrangements. The most significant information should be condensed so it can be read quickly.

To avoid these disadvantages some schools have adopted separate files of cumulative record data and individual folders. The cumulative card (single or folder type) is paralleled by a large folder in which are kept samples of the pupil's work, teachers' reports, correspondence between school and home, autobiographies, anecdotal records, and other significant data. This serves the teacher who wishes to obtain a quick general picture of the pupil or the counselor and case-worker who may be making a detailed study of the pupil.

In summary, we may conclude that the cumulative record has three variants: (1) a single card or a single record folder; (2) a cumulative record as a folder in which loose papers or cards containing more detailed information can be placed; and (3) a cumulative record card on which data have been transferred periodically, supplemented by a folder containing more detailed information.

### Basic Concepts in the Construction of a Cumulative Record

Foremost in the early planning for constructing a cumulative record will be consideration of its possible contribution to the realization of educational objectives. The record should be a device of value in assisting all who use it to better understand the child. Essential to this understanding is the concept of the child as a developing organism who changes from day to day and week to week. His education should reflect

continuous growth from kindergarten through college. Evidence of this growth should be reflected on the cumulative record.

A good record will present data in annual divisions, so that a picture of growth increments can be easily observed. Because records should be available to teacher as well as specialist, complicated symbols and statistical terms should be avoided. Neither is it wise to encourage the use of "shorthand" notations which tend to lose much of their meaning for subsequent users of the card when these symbols are completely divorced from the original data.

### The Content of the Cumulative Record

An examination of the contents of the cumulative record will readily reflect the philosophy of the school which uses them. A record containing only the results of achievement and intelligence tests indicates little regard for the child as a human being. His personality, including social and emotional adjustment; his quality of thinking; his interests, attitudes, and beliefs; and his life-values probably receive a minimum of attention.

There are no standard listings of items to be included in a cumulative record. What is contained will depend upon institutional objectives. Reference can be made here, however, of items commonly found such as identifying data of name, address, date of birth, and racial extraction; facts regarding family background and history such as parents' occupation, parents' plans for the child, parental marital status, and information regarding siblings; facts of personal appearance; facts of health; results of achievement in academic areas, including lists of books read, units of work covered, teachers' estimates of growth; facts from tests, including intelligence, achievement, diagnostic, special abilities and accomplishments; personality traits, including work habits, character development, social and character ratings, citizenship records, and interests. Space is also provided for anecdotal record summaries and descriptions of out-of-school activities and interests.

A good cumulative record provides evidence concerning the social, civic, and economic responsibility of individuals. These include supervisors' and employers' anecdotal reports and questionnaires filled out by students.

The record should show whether students' interests are becoming broader, narrower, or more intense. Are his attitudes and beliefs becoming more rigid, more flexible, more consistent, or more confused? Social

competence and emotional adjustment are reflected in measures of personality traits, personality inventories, rating scales, sociometric tests, and in the results of projective techniques. Brief notes from faculty conferences, from counselor and teacher interviews, and from anecdotal records will describe behavior, purposes in life, and levels of aspiration. Somewhere the guidance worker should find accounts of the student's struggle for popularity; his attempts to rise above the socio-economic status of his parents; his success or failure to achieve high moral standards, economic independence, and recreational outlets. Ideally the record should contain evidence of successful employment and further education after leaving school.

These data can conveniently be classified into eleven critical areas: (1) home background; (2) general abilities; (3) special abilities; (4) progress in skills and knowledge; (5) work experience, community service, and other activities; (6) quality of thinking; (7) special interests, attitudes, and beliefs; (8) social competence and emotional adjustment; (9) health, physical growth, and energy output; (10) genuineness of purpose and level of aspiration; and (11) life-values (15:226).

No school should adopt a commercial record form containing space for all the above items without first considering carefully its own objectives and program. Portions of published record forms may be found so desirable that they can be incorporated into a new form. Begin with a simple form containing only those items most common to the students and most likely to be used by the counselors and teachers. The form may be revised as the program develops.

## Responsibilities for Collecting and Recording Data

Any system of adequate records will draw heavily upon the time of the faculty and advisory staff. In an attempt to relieve teachers of some of this load, some schools have encouraged student participation in record-keeping and reporting. In doing so, they have found that participation appears to increase a student's ability to identify his own strengths and weaknesses. Record-keeping thus becomes part of the educational procedure itself in which evaluation is *with* students not *for* them. A folder containing test results, samples of school work, biographical data, written educational and vocational plans, and all the other pertinent accumulated information should be examined by teacher and pupil together. The available evidence should be validated in conference by

teacher and pupil to the extent that the procedure becomes a significant supplement to the student's self-evaluation.

Recent literature in child and adolescent psychology points up the importance of individual self-regard. The use of records by the counselor is a potent force in assisting the pupil to see and evaluate himself accurately. The record may well form the basis from which problems will move toward solution and on which decisions rest.

Hahn and MacLean (10:98) believe that relatively few items need be kept secret from the students whom they concern, and even those few items could well be revealed at the right time if they are fully interpreted. Neatness will be sacrificed and some errors will occur, but these can be corrected. These writers believe that the following items are usually best drawn from, and recorded by, students:

1. Name
2. Place of birth
3. Age
4. Stated interests
5. Vocational preference
6. Work experience
7. Support of self or dependents
8. Earnings
9. Educational plans
10. Hours consumed by computing extra-curricular experiences
11. Clubs, and offices held
12. Notable accomplishments
13. Father's or guardian's name, age, occupation, and education
14. Home-study conditions
15. Time budget
16. Hours devoted to study
17. Mother's name, age, occupation, and education
18. Brothers and sisters

In the interests of accuracy, or because careful interpretation is needed, items which should be recorded by someone other than the counselee include:

| | |
|---|---|
| Physical disabilities | (physician or nurse) |
| Health, physical | (physician or nurse) |
| Personality ratings | (physician, psychiatric social worker) |
| Personality tests | (counselor) |
| Academic intelligence test | (counselor) |
| Discipline | (administrator) |
| Number of days absent | (clerk) |
| Date and reason for leaving school | (clerk) |

The responsibility for keeping records should not be delegated solely to clerical personnel. Responsibilities can be distributed, and some

schools have worked out detailed plans and check-lists to indicate who is to be responsible for collecting certain items of information. A kindergarten teacher, for example, may look down the list and note the data he is to supply when the child enters. Later, grade teachers supply data on changes such as number of children in the family. The check-list requires careful plans for coördination between grade school, junior high school, and senior high school.

## Using Cumulative Records

The ability to use cumulative records efficiently requires a high degree of insight into human behavior. Untrained teachers, for example, can scarcely see comprehensive test and anecdotal data in their patterns of interrelationship. Training for interpreting test scores generally exceeds that given to the average teacher; thus it is necessary to include record interpretation in the program of in-service training. Few teachers realize, for instance, that data recorded as raw scores are relatively useless unless one knows the nature of the population, the central tendency, and the variability of scores for the group from which the data were gathered. It is important to know, too, whether the results are recorded as percentile or standard scores, and whether the norms represent local, state, or national populations.

When the entire school staff participates in constructing a cumulative record and determines the data it should contain, each guidance worker, including the teacher, will know whether the school has adopted some standard for the distribution of marks, whether the mark represents achievement of a student in relation to others, to ability, or to achievement per se. To supplement their in-service training, many schools have provided a manual for the cumulative record as an aid to teachers for making entries and interpretation.

The cumulative record contributes to guidance by providing a sound basis for understanding the pupil. It becomes the first source of study by teachers who wish to discover clues to the causes of behavior difficulties or to determine the capacity of their pupils who wish to become acquainted with new pupils. Frequently it is the only source from which diagnosis can begin in discovering retarded progression; in many cases it is the point of departure leading toward curriculum revision and improvement of teaching, or for aiding articulation between pupils. As preparation for pupil or parent counseling, a thorough study of the cumulative record is requisite.

### REPORTS FROM SCHOOL TO HOME

*Importance of Reports*

Second only to the informal conversational reports children make to parents about their school, the reports sent home from the school are the most potent force for developing good or bad public relations. Traditionally, the most regular communication from school to home has been "the report card." As early as 1840 one of the contributors to Horace Mann's *Common School Journal* advocated weekly reports to be sent home on printed forms in which a system of figures or letters would indicate the pupil's advancement and behavior. The "mark" as a symbol of progress (or lack of progress) has become a part of the traditional American public school (13).

Historically, the mark has emphasized scholarship as reflected by results of competitive classroom examinations. Scores have been recorded on a percentile basis and several ratings assigned above the passing grade. In addition to the percentage system the most common marking plans are the symbolic (letter grade) system, the dichotomous (satisfactory or unsatisfactory) system, and some kind of mark to indicate the relationship of the pupil's achievement to his ability. The report card served the purpose of informing the parent of his child's progress or attainment in terms of the "marks" he made as compared with other children in his class. Because the majority of colleges still require these marks for entrance, the marking system has been continued by practically all high schools.

With increasing frequency school systems are modifying their entire marking procedure to include a broader concept of evaluation as a vital part of the educative process. Reports of pupil progress can be of value to pupil, teacher, and parent, and all must share in how the reports shall be made and used. After even a brief study of the question, pupils, teachers, and parents will agree that some measure other than marks will be necessary to appraise child growth and development.

*How to Improve the Reporting System*

The work of many individuals *is* necessary before a satisfactory plan of reporting children's progress can be developed. No standard procedure can be found, but the authors suggest the following steps for initiating a project for improvement of the traditional report-card system:

1. Plan a program to evaluate the present system of reporting from school to home.
   (a) May be initiated by holding a general meeting of teachers, administrators, and patrons.
   (b) May be initiated through a meeting of a small group of teachers.
   (c) May be initiated through the use of a questionnaire to sample teacher, parent, and pupil opinion of present system.

2. Organize the evaluation procedure so the following questions will be answered.
   (a) What is the value of reports as measuring devices?
   (b) What are the trends in reporting progress?
   (c) What are the best principles of guidance in report making?
   (d) What are the characteristics of a good report card?
   (e) What do parents wish to know about their children?
   (f) What are the purposes of report cards?
   (g) What is the relation of the philosophy and psychology of modern education in relation to the card?

3. Make a survey of reports and literature in the field.
   (a) Obtain sample report cards from many schools throughout the nation.
   (b) Make reports on practices of other school systems.
   (c) List requests of school patrons.
   (d) Make reports of illustrative literature in the field.

4. Arrange for a period of time for experimental purposes.
   (a) Teachers may be asked to appraise the new reporting system and be encouraged to offer constructive criticisms and suggestions.
   (b) Each teacher may be asked to make a thorough analysis of the advantages and disadvantages of the new card (or reporting system).
   (c) Obtain opinions from parents and pupils regarding the new card (or reporting system).

Typical questions to sample teacher-attitude toward a new report card:

1. Does this new card allow for teacher consideration of individual differences?
2. Does the detailed check-list of desirable abilities and behaviors give the teacher opportunity for a better analysis of children with special problems?

3. Are educational objectives of the school more clearly defined by the new card?
4. Is there a need for a space for "teacher-comment" on the report?
5. Would (or do) parents take advantage of the space for "parent comment" on the new card?
6. Do the parents respond whenever there is indicated a need for a conference?
7. Does the new report present a more complete picture of pupil growth and development to the parent?
8. Has the new card (or system) helped to establish a closer coöperation between home and school?
9. How have the parents responded to this new card (or system)?
10. Can the children interpret the new card?
11. Has the new card (or system) helped to motivate children toward attaining higher standards of citizenship?

Typical questions to sample parent-attitude toward the new card (or system):

Does the new card (or system):

1. Assist the parent to understand the educational objectives of the school?
2. Reflect a more complete and systematic understanding of the child?
3. Report pupil growth in desirable habits, attitudes, and character traits?
4. Make provision for the pupil's ability? achievement?
5. Provide a satisfactory rating scale in the school subjects which considers the needs of every child?
6. Establish a closer coöperation between home and school?

## The Characteristics of a Good Report of Pupil Progress

A good report of the pupil's progress should:

1. Promote good relationships between school and home.
2. Represent the philosophy and purpose of the school system.
3. Reflect a consideration of the whole child.
4. Give direction to the entire learning process.
5. Avoid the use of a marking system which makes unnecessary comparisons among pupils.

6. Indicate progress toward achieving all the aims of modern education rather than the retention of subject matter or acquisition of subject-matter skills alone.

7. Emphasize the development of understandings and the acquisition of desirable attitudes and habits of behavior.

8. Be suitable to the continuous-progress theory of advancement rather than a device for promotion.

9. Provide an opportunity for the child to assist in evaluating his own growth.

10. Stimulate conferences between child, parent, and teacher.

11. Present evidence of social development, e.g., how a child gets along with others? What social difficulties is the child having?

12. Indicate status of physical health; e.g., are there any physical handicaps or strengths?

*Illustrations of Attempts to Meet the Criteria of Good Reporting*

A good report should promote good relationships between school and home.

### EXAMPLE FROM SCHOOL A

To the Parent or Guardian:

Your child's report card will be sent to you three times each term. It will show growth in desirable habits and attitudes and progress in fundamental school subjects. Reports will be based not only upon achievement, but also upon consideration of effort and ability. The purpose of the school is to work with parents in helping each child to develop as an individual to the best of his ability, and to aid him in making a worthy contribution to home, school, and community. While the school aims to offer the same advantages to all children, all do not attain the same results.

You are urged to visit the school at any time to see your child at work. If you wish to have a conference, it is suggested that you make an appointment so that the teacher will be free to give adequate time to the interview. Through sympathetic understanding, the home and school can together plan experiences which will contribute to the growth and development of your child. Groups of parents working with teachers have listed the following items which have a direct bearing on a child's success in school. The school will coöperate with the home toward the end that a wholesome routine is established. Both teachers and parents agree that the child should:

1. Attend school regularly.
2. Rest and sleep enough to avoid fatigue.

3. Eat sufficient food, particularly at breakfast.
4. Perform some home duties.
5. Limit outside activities and responsibilities.
6. Have ample opportunity for suitable recreation.
7. Have an opportunity to meet his friends under proper supervision.
8. Use a public library card.
9. Continually practice obedience and honesty.
10. Read and study in a quiet place.
11. See only movies suitable for children.
12. Use the radio (also television) for limited periods.
13. Practice neatness and cleanliness in person and clothing.
14. Find serenity in his home.
15. Have a personal allowance, no matter how small. ✓
16. Have the interest, confidence, and encouragement of his parents and teachers.
17. Practice loyalty to his home, school, and country.

A good school report represents philosophy and purpose of the school system.

## EXAMPLE FROM SCHOOL B

This school recognizes that progress can be expected only in terms of the ability of each child. In the broadest sense this includes his physical, intellectual, emotional, and social levels of development.

Realizing that pupils differ in respect to these traits, grades will be given to indicate how well your child is working up to *his individual ability* and should not be used as a basis for comparison with other children.

The schools of Goldville try to do the following things for your child:

1. Help him develop an understanding of his world.
2. Help him develop desirable attitudes and behavior in his social relationships.
3. Help the child share his ideas with others and receive ideas from others through learning to get along with others, to listen well, to speak clearly, to read with understanding, to write clearly, to spell correctly.
4. Help the child learn the value of numbers and their use in everyday living.
5. Help the child enjoy many activities so that he may have a rich and interesting life.
6. Help the child develop habits and attitudes which further his personal health and the health of those about him.
7. Help the child develop toward these objectives; learning experiences

are planned in such areas as practice in living, language arts, science, mathematics, library, art, music, shop, crafts, physical education, and homemaking.

A good report avoids the use of a marking system which makes unnecessary comparisons among pupils.

## EXAMPLE FROM SCHOOL C

To Parents:

The purpose of this report card is to furnish you with general statements of the progress of your child in his school work and to acquaint you with some of the problems we face as parents and teachers in his training.

It is the aim of our school to place your child in an environment conducive to his maximum growth and development. All children cannot attain the same standards in physical growth, social attitudes, and academic learning in the same time interval. Even with equal opportunities, development comes more slowly to some children than others. This is natural and is to be expected by parents and teachers.

The value of this report depends upon the attention you give it. Talk it over with your child. You are invited to visit the school frequently and share in his educational program.

A good card reflects a consideration of the whole child. It gives direction to the entire learning process.

## EXAMPLE FROM SCHOOL D

Dear Parents:

Because beginnings are so important, this leaflet has been prepared in the hope that it will help you interpret what the school is trying to do for your child. We are counting on your active interest and coöperation in making this first year of school a memorable and profitable one for your child.

There is no such thing as a "typical child." However, many children the age of your child have characteristics in common. In order to guide your child's growth wisely, it is necessary to distinguish between behavior traits that are part of his growth patterns and these which are not. Among the normal behavior traits of five-year-olds are:

1. Marked bodily activity.
2. Inability to sit still for long without such tensional outlets as scratching, wiggling, fidgeting, etc.
3. Need of security and dependence on affection of parents—particularly mother.

4. Lives in a here-and-now world, his chief interests being limited to his own immediate experiences.
5. Plays best out-of-doors.
6. Plays best with very small group or with one other child. Thrusting them together too often before they are ready is unwise.
7. Usually adjusts to school well.
8. Is often uncommunicative about his school life.
9. Works in short bursts of energy.
10. Enjoys a routine.
11. Needs a school program which allows freedom of movement and yet follows a definite routine.

A good card indicates status of physical health; of emotional health; and of social development.

### EXAMPLE FROM SCHOOL E

Items are considered satisfactory unless checked:

A. Physical Development

    1. Is healthy enough to participate actively ........
    2. Has good posture ........
    3. Keeps hands and objects out of mouth ........
    4. Relaxes well at rest periods ........
    5. Has good muscular coördination as shown in skipping, catching balls, and bodily control ........

B. Emotional Development

    1. Enjoys work and play together ........
    2. Meets trying situations carefully ........
    3. Makes an effort to overcome shyness, embarrassment, fears, anxieties, worries ........
    4. Has confidence in self ........

C. Social Development

    1. Listens attentively when someone is speaking ........
    2. Sits in a group without disturbing others ........
    3. Plays fairly ........
    4. Shares materials with others ........
    5. Speaks in a pleasant and courteous manner ........
    6. Is willing to take part in group activities ........
    7. Is considerate with others ........
    8. Is careful of the property of others ........

*Illustrations of Modern Report Cards*

EXAMPLE NO. 1

Page 1

SAN FRANCISCO UNIFIED SCHOOL DISTRICT
DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

PROGRESS REPORT

FOR

GRADES ONE, TWO, AND THREE

Pupil ...........................................................

Teacher .........................................................

School ..........................................................

Grade .................... Term Ending .............. 19 ........

ASSIGNMENT FOR NEXT TERM

.................... Is assigned to the

.................... Grade for the ............... Term, 19 ......

...................... Teacher

...................... Principal

..............................

Superintendent of Schools

Page 2

## GROWTH IN DESIRABLE ABILITIES AND BEHAVIOR

No marks appear if growth is satisfactory. The degree of development expected at various age levels has been considered. A check means that *much improvement is needed.*

|  | First Report | Second Report | Third Report |
|---|---|---|---|

WORK AND STUDY HABITS

1. Promptness and regularity in attendance
2. Ability to work with others
3. Ability to plan
4. Thoughtful following of directions and plans
5. Responsibility for one's job
6. Wise use of time, books, and materials
7. Acceptance of responsibility for one's acts

HEALTH AND SAFETY HABITS

1. Respect for and obedience to authority
2. Reasoned self-discipline
3. Consideration for the rights of others
4. Respect for public and private property
5. Appreciation for the contribution of others
6. Wholesome interest in play.

A CHECK MEANS THAT A CONFERENCE WITH THE HOME WILL BE HELPFUL AND IS REQUESTED.

*Record of Absence and Tardiness*

   Days Absent
   Times Tardy

Page 3

## PROGRESS IN SCHOOL SUBJECTS

Check marks are used to indicate ratings

|  | First Report | | | | | Second Report | | | | | Third Report | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| The check in reading is placed to indicate the level at which your child is working | Outstanding | Very Good | Satisfactory | for This Child | Unsatisfactory for This Child | Outstanding | Very Good | Satisfactory | for This Child | Unsatisfactory for This Child | Outstanding | Very Good | Satisfactory | for This Child | Unsatisfactory for This Child |
| *Reading* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|   Reading readiness | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|   Pre-primer | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|   Primer | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|   First reader | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|   Second reader | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|   Third reader | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|   Above third reader | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| *Arithmetic* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| *Language* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|   Oral expression | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|   Written expression | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| *Spelling* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|   Weekly assignment | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|   Use in written work | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| *Handwriting* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| *Participation in Other Activities* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Interest and effort in: | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|   Art | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|   Music | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|   Physical Education | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|   Handwork | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Page 4

NOTE TO PARENT OR GUARDIAN:

Please sign this card to indicate that you have examined it. Your *immediate* attention to this will be appreciated because your child´is expected to return the card promptly.

Comments on the report are invited

FIRST REPORT:    ................
.................

.............................
SECOND REPORT: ................        Signature of Parent or Guardian
.................

.............................
THIRD REPORT: ................        Signature of Parent or Guardian
.................

.............................
Signature of Parent or Guardian

TEACHER'S NOTE:

At the end of the term, regarding any subjects in which additional attention of both the home and the school is needed ..............................
..................................................................
..................................................................

## REPORT TO PARENTS
### William M. Stewart School
### Salt Lake City, Utah

This report attempts to appraise the individual growth and development of our students. Since no two people grow alike it is felt that comparative scores or letter grades do not adequately report individual progress. We are offering this more comprehensive summary in the place of scores or letter grades.

Seven large areas are presented in the report, each with various subtopics. Favorable development in these areas is the goal we are working toward. Each student will normally move toward these goals at a different rate. The teacher recognizes this and marks accordingly.

When the growth is even, and steady, it is indicated with a ☑

An unusual spurt of growth following a period of very little
    growth is shown by a ☒

Where little evidence of growth is seen, we mark ☐

When an item is not applicable to a particular child or grade
    level, or we have inadequate information, no mark is indicated.

REPORT OF ...................................................

GRADE ................................. 19 ........, 19 ........

Assignment next year, Grade ...................................

TEACHER ....................................................

PRINCIPAL ...................................................

### ATTENDANCE RECORD

|              | 1st | 2nd |
|--------------|-----|-----|
| Days Present |     |     |
| Days Absent  |     |     |
| Times Tardy  |     |     |

CHECK-LIST

**I. *Skills and Abilities in Working with Others:***

1. Demonstrates willingness to take turns and share with others.
2. Listens and accepts the ideas of others.
3. Accepts suggestions regarding self.
4. Takes responsibility for a share of the job to be done.
5. Makes contacts with his classmates in a variety of socially acceptable ways.

**II. *Work and Study Habits:***

1. Analyzes a situation and acts appropriately.
2. Shows an increase in ability to work on his own.
3. Is prompt in meeting the day's schedule.
4. Assumes responsibility for completing work assigned or volunteered.
5. Participates actively in group discussions and other activities.
6. Demonstrates interest in new activities and shows willingness to work experimentally.
7. Shows increased ability to use a variety of sources for useful information.

**III. *Language Arts:***

1. Shows growth in ability to organize ideas, to phrase a request, to present a point of view.
2. Shows growth in ability and willingness to present ideas in writing.
3. Shows growth in the mechanical aspects of writing:
   Sentence structure
   Spelling
   Penmanship
   Punctuation and capitalization
4. Shows growth in ability to read a variety of materials.
5. Shows growth in effective comprehension.
6. Shows increased skill in word recognition and ability to analyze words.

IV. *Number Comprehension and Ability:*

1. Shows growth in the basic arithmetical processes.
2. Demonstrates growth in number concepts and problem solving.

V. *Social Study Interests and Abilities:*

1. Demonstrates interest by contributing from his own experience either ideas or objects which further the group work.
2. Shows increased ability to organize information in a useful way.
3. Shows growth in understanding and attitudes regarding people, their interrelationships, ways of working, use of natural resources, and commodities.
4. Shows increased awareness of the elementary concepts of distance, time, and space.

VI. *Physical Condition and Control:*

1. Shows increased ability to coördinate the body in games and sports.
2. Shows increased ability to use tools and equipment.
3. Shows increased ability to follow rules and directions.
4. Shows increased ability to handle frustration when things don't go right while working with others or working with objects.
5. Observes good health and safety practices.

VII. *Creative and Aesthetic Interest and Abilities:*

.................................................
.................................................

VIII. *Other Comments:* ...................................
.................................................

*Parent's Comments:* ...................................
.................................................

.........................    .........................
Father's Signature            Mother's Signature

(Please sign and return after 1st report period)

## SUMMARY

Records and reports are an integral part of the personnel and instructional program and must, therefore, be given significant consideration to facilitate guidance for each individual student. A comprehensive and detailed system of cumulative personnel records is indispensable for the proper functioning of the modern school. To be of maximum value the records should begin when the child enters school and in a cumulative fashion continue for several years after the student drops out or graduates from school. In other words, records and reports are necessary in the planning of continuous experience from school to full participation in the civic and industrial life of the community.

Records should be readily accessible to the entire faculty and, under some circumstances, to the student himself. For maximum usefulness the data should be simply and clearly organized, meet the criteria of reliability, validity, and comparability; and be collected according to the nature and purposes of the school and pupil. Uniformity in type and content throughout the school system, with a minimum of repetition of items, increases their effectiveness. Although a manual of detailed directions for recording and interpreting should be provided, a program of teacher education should be planned in the use of records and reports.

Records and reports should be the result of coöperative planning of administrators, teachers, parents, and pupils. Finally, they should demand a minimum of clerical time and ability. For purposes of instruction in this chapter we have followed Traxler's classification of records. This classification proceeds according to: function, filing arrangements, nature of centralizing unit, and permanency.

Considerable significance has been given to the cumulative record—the account of the individual's school history. It has three variants: a single card or a single record folder, a cumulative record as a folder, and a cumulative record card on which data have been transferred periodically supplemented by a folder containing more detailed information. By providing a sound basis for understanding the pupil the cumulative record becomes the principal source of study by teachers. Frequently it is the only source from which diagnosis can begin.

Reports from home to school were represented as a most potent force for developing good or bad public relations. With increasing frequency school systems are modifying their entire marking procedure to include a broader concept of evaluation as a vital part of the educative process.

The examples shown in the discussion were characterized by attempts to promote good relationships between school and home, to reflect a consideration of the whole child, to avoid the use of a marking system which makes unnecessary comparisons among pupils, and to indicate progress toward achieving all the aims of modern education rather than merely the retention of subject matter. They also encourage conferences between child, parent, and teacher; are suitable to the continuous-progress theory of advancement rather than a device for promotion; and present evidence of social development.

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# The Evaluation of the Effectiveness
# of the Guidance Program

### EVALUATION AND EDUCATIONAL PURPOSES

EDUCATION without evaluation is like a boat drifting without a rudder. Educators must know what they are attempting to do and how well they are doing it. Fortunately, the general objectives of education have been well stated by professional groups of well qualified people. We may use, for example, the statements by the Educational Policies Commission which summarizes the purposes of education in American democracy under four groups of objectives (11).

1. The objectives of self-realization
2. The objectives of human relationships
3. The objectives of economic efficiency
4. The objectives of civic responsibility

The elements of general social policy which continuously strive toward the democratic ideal were significant considerations in formulating these objectives. These elements have been listed as: (1) an interest in the general welfare, e.g., an interest in the other fellow and a feeling of kinship to other people more or less fortunate than oneself; (2) a respect for civil liberty, e.g., a sanctity of each individual personality; (3) the consent of the governed, e.g., the assent of the people in matters of social control and the participation of all concerned in arriving at important decisions; (4) the appeal to reason, e.g., the

application of peaceful and orderly methods to the arbitration of controversial questions; and (5) setting a high value upon the pursuit of happiness, e.g., the attainment of human happiness is the basis for judging the effectiveness of social life.

Educational purposes embrace all the objectives of the guidance program. If these purposes are evaluated adequately then the objectives of the guidance program are also evaluated because the outcomes of the total educational program include the outcomes of guidance.

The best example to be found in evaluating the total educational program are the evaluation studies made by institutions of higher learning. Of these studies let us select one for an example of statement of purposes (9):

> The objective of the study is to examine as critically and systematically as possible the use of modern techniques in evaluating all aspects of school life. The institution should know the effect of instructional methods, guidance services, and extra-curricular activities on the intellectual, moral and physical development of the student. The truth is that we have not applied the tools of our trade to testing the results of our own educational efforts. We have not applied our own methods to ourselves in spite of the fact that procedures have been developed in the fields of statistical analysis and the social studies which now are being extensively used to attack analogous problems in government, industry and commerce and which hold out similar promise for education.

Attempts to isolate objectives of a guidance program frequently embrace the objectives of education. For example, note this statement (5):

> Student personnel work consists of those processes and functions undertaken by an educational institution which place emphasis upon (1) the individual student and his intellectual, social, emotional and physical development; (2) the building of curricula, methods of instruction and extra classroom programs to achieve the preceding objective; (3) democratic procedures in working with students in order to help bring about their greatest possible self-realization; (4) the performance of student personnel functions rather than emphasis upon specially designated individuals to perform them.

These examples serve to illustrate how difficult the task of evaluating the guidance program may be. Guidance is difficult to evaluate because it is not a specific process which can be neatly defined nor can valid

criteria be chosen by which its effectiveness and efficiency can be determined. Regardless of the difficulty, however, indirect measures can be used and have been used, to evaluate the effectiveness of guidance. Continuous effort to use the evaluation process properly is the only hope that can be given to improve the guidance phase of education.

## The Evaluation Procedure

Evaluation procedure has been generally standardized in the form of definite steps. Although the steps have been variously defined they follow this general sequence:

1. The objectives must be clearly stated, specifically clarified, and defined in terms of human behavior.

2. Plans are made and procedures developed for attaining these objectives.

3. Sources of evidence for observing behavior must be identified.

4. Methods and instruments must be devised or selected which can be used to secure evidence that each specific objective has or has not been attained.

5. The data must be analyzed and interpreted.

6. Application of the results are made with plans to evaluate the effects.

Although we shall not attempt to illustrate each of these steps, from actual practice it will be worth-while to show how some of them have been applied to the evaluation of the guidance programs.

### THE FORMULATION OF OBJECTIVES

Evaluation in terms of achievement of the objectives is most difficult in the guidance area of education. In the first place, no standard set of objectives has been formulated. Objectives will differ from school to school and from faculty to faculty. Because of differing concepts, guidance workers do not attempt to achieve the same objectives. For example, although the majority of guidance workers would accept "desirable adjustment" as one objective of guidance it is unusual to find two guidance specialists who can agree on the meaning of the term "adjustment." Until a school staff can clearly define the objectives of guidance little can be done to measure the outcomes.

It is also difficult to formulate objectives in terms of specific human behavior, for one individual may achieve the objective one way and

another individual by a different way. However, the objectives found in the American College Personnel Association Charter will serve as a guide for a school attempting to establish its own objectives. These appear as follows (revised form) (4).

1. The student is encouraged to participate in student government to the mutual benefit of the school, community, and the individual.

2. The guidance program should develop skills in effective leadership and coöperative group participation in line with individual needs.

3. Assistance should be given to all student organizations in developing programs which will benefit the school community as well as individual needs.

4. The student should be given help to interpret his interests and needs in relation to classroom and extra-classroom policies and programs.

5. Assistance should be given to students in making adjustments to financial problems in such a way that they can continue their education.

6. The guidance program should make possible the attainment of personally successful and socially acceptable living in an attractive and congenial environment.

7. Students should be encouraged to supplement classroom learning with a variety of experiences which will develop social responsibilities and good citizenship.

8. Students should be assisted in making a choice of subjects which will give them a liberal education yet specialized training.

9. Assistance should be offered to students in making wise decisions in the selection of vocational objectives.

10. The guidance program should assist students to remove personal obstacles which prevent them from making maximum use of their opportunities for growth.

11. Students should be provided with occupational information in relation to their preparation, aptitudes, and abilities.

12. Assistance should be given to students in finding adequate employment in the industrial, business, and professional fields.

13. Assistance should be given in the development of a student health program which will have educational, preventative, and clinical aspects. More specifically, such a program should: (a) protect the well from the sick; (b) detect structural and functional defects and secure treatment for them; (c) discover defective habits and attitudes, and supply appropriate information and advice for their correction; (d)

teach hygiene for present and future living through the scientific information and advice given the student regarding his health needs.

PROCEDURES FOR GATHERING DATA

Travers (29) has conveniently classified procedures for gathering data into the categories of (1) *subjective*, and (2) *objective*. An example of subjective data are those techniques which gather the student's own assessment of his personal happiness, the satisfaction which he derives from his job, the extent to which he feels that his social life is adequate, the degree to which he feels that he has achieved the goals which he set for himself. Another example is the rating scale, all too frequently colored by immediate and transitory circumstances.

Examples of objective data are: academic grades, income after a number of years, frequency of jobs, stability of life goals, and extent to which educational plans are completed. These data, too, are fraught with dangers. For example, grades do not mean the same thing from one teacher to another, and often some students select easy courses and lenient instructors. Evaluation by determining changes in grades can be justified only when they symbolize a desirable change in behavior.

A report of city school systems indicates that the thirteen most frequently used procedures and instruments to secure evaluation evidence are (22): tests, interviews, case studies, case conferences, observation, group discussion, anecdotal records, questionnaires, files of sample material, inventories, rating scales, check-lists, logs or diaries. In addition to these devices, individual school systems reported the use of: surveys, follow-up studies, statistical analyses, social case work, psychiatric devices, health records, parental conferences, staffs and clinics, sociometric techniques, pupils' graphs, scores on achievement tests, recordings, films and photographs, stenographic reports, and profiles. As they apply to the evaluation of the effectiveness of guidance, we shall discuss some of these techniques in detail in subsequent paragraphs.

*The Survey as an Evaluation Technique*

The survey generally takes the form of anecdotal description or a check-list of criteria for various divisions or services of the organized guidance program. The anecdotal type of survey provides a glimpse of present practice, but it is subjective in that the rating is based on the investigator's opinion. If he is critical he may note unfavorable procedures; if he is favorably impressed he is likely to note the incidents

that will create a good impression. Unconscious bias is difficult to recognize and control.

Examples of divisions of the guidance program which may be evaluated by a check-list of criteria are: administrative leadership, provisions and facilities for guidance, in-service education, preparation and qualifications of the guidance staff, specialized services available, guidance and informational services, counseling and placement services, follow-up studies, relation of guidance to curriculum and instruction, and use of community resources. This small list is sufficient to illustrate the molecular characteristics of such a method as no attention is given to relationships and quality. The effect of the guidance program on the student cannot be determined by using a check-list.

Probably the best survey-type of appraisal instrument available for evaluating guidance programs is published by the *U. S. Office of Education* (3). Excerpts from this form are shown as follows:

## I. Administrative Bases for Guidance Services

### A. Leadership
*Evaluations:*
( ) a. How adequately does the administrator use his leadership in planning and developing the guidance program?
( ) b. To what extent has the administrator enlisted the support of the community, staff, and pupils in the development of the guidance program?
*Comments:*

### B. Provisions and Facilities
*Evaluations:*
( ) a. How well has the administrator provided for a comprehensive program of records?
( ) b. How well has the administrator provided for effective utilization of records?
( ) c. How well has the administrator provided for facilitating the organizational and physical needs of the guidance program?
( ) d. How well has the administrator provided financially for the guidance services?
*Comments:*

### C. Training
*Evaluations:*
( ) a. How well does the administrator provide for the training of the specialized staff in guidance services?

( ) b. How well does the administrator provide in-service training for the total school staff in guidance services?
*Comments:*

## II. GUIDANCE STAFF

### A. Guidance Leadership
*Evaluations:*
( ) a. How adequate is the preparation and experience of this person?
( ) b. How satisfactory are the personal qualifications of this person?
*Comments:*

### B. Improvement in Service
*Evaluations:*
( ) a. How extensive and varied are this staff member's efforts to improve?
( ) b. How effective are this staff member's efforts to improve?
*Comments:*

### C. Referral Consultants
*Evaluations:*
( ) a. How adequate are the provisions for the services of referral consultants?
( ) b. How adequately is use made of the services available from referral consultants?
( ) c. How well do counselors and referral consultants understand their mutual responsibilities and relationships?
*Comments:*

## III. GUIDANCE SERVICES

### A. Individual Inventory Service
*Evaluation:*
( ) a. How adequate are the provisions for obtaining information about pupils?
*Comments:*

#### TYPES OF INFORMATION ABOUT PUPILS

a. Home and Family Background
*Evaluations:*
( ) a. How adequately is information concerning home and family background provided?
( ) b. How well are records kept up to date?
*Comments:*

b. Physical and Health Status
*Evaluations:*
( )  a. How adequately is information about physical and medical status provided?
( )  b. How well are records kept up to date?
*Comments:*

c. Personal, Social, and Mental Status and Development
*Evaluations:*
( )  a. How adequately is information concerning personal, social, and mental development provided?
( )  b. How well are records kept up to date?
*Comments:*

d. Scholastic Progress
*Evaluations:*
( )  a. How adequately is information concerning scholastic progress provided?
( )  b. How well are records kept up to date?
*Comments:*

MAINTENANCE AND USE OF PUPIL INFORMATION
*Evaluations:*
( )  a. How accessible are pupil data to those who need them?
( )  b. How well are pupil records organized for use?
( )  c. How effectively are cumulative records used for pupil guidance?
( )  d. To what extent do staff members show professional judgment in using confidential information obtained from pupil records?

B. Information Services for Individual Pupils
*Evaluations:*
( )  a. How adequate is the informational service to individual pupils?
( )  b. How extensively do pupils use the informational services available to them?
*Comments:*

C. Counseling Services
*Evaluation:*
( )  a. To what extent does the counseling adhere to the principles listed above?
*Comments:*

Placement Services
Other Placement
Follow-up Services

IV. SERVICES COMPLEMENTARY TO THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM

A. Facilitating Pupil Adjustment to the School
*Evaluation:*
( ) a. How adequately are procedures such as the above used to complement the guidance program?
*Comments:*

B. Background for Planning Post-School Work or Training
C. Out-of-School Services by Organizations and by Specialists

V. GUIDANCE SERVICES AS AN INFLUENCE ON TOTAL SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT

A. Curriculum Influences
*Evaluations:*
( ) a. To what extent have the guidance services made data available for use by the school staff for purposes of curriculum development?
( ) b. To what extent has the curriculum been modified or developed as a result of the guidance findings?
*Comments:*

B. Pupil Attitude and Adjustment Influences
*Evaluations:*
( ) a. How effective has the guidance program been in promoting better in-school adjustment on the part of pupils?
( ) b. How effective has the guidance program been in promoting better post-school and out-of-school adjustment on the part of the pupils?

VI. OUTSTANDING CHARACTERISTICS OF THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM

A. What are the best elements or characteristics of the guidance program?
B. In what respects is it least adequate or in greatest need of improvement?
C. In what respects has it been improved within the last two years?
D. What improvements are now being made or are definitely planned for the immediate future?
E. What carefully conducted studies has the school made within the past three years or is now making of its own problems in this field?

VII. GENERAL EVALUATION OF THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM

( ) a. How adequate are provisions of personnel, quarters, and materials for the support of a comprehensive guidance program in the school?

( ) b. How well are the facilities and resources available being utilized to provide adequate guidance services to individual pupils?

( ) c. To what extent is the school integrating its guidance services with general school objectives and using guidance services as a tool in total school development?

*Comments:*

*Notes:*

Another excellent example of survey-type check-list is that suggested by Erickson and Smith (*12*). The division heading with the first five items under each heading is shown below for illustrative purposes:

### I. The Individual Inventory

1. Do cumulative records follow pupils from kindergarten through the twelfth grade?     Yes..... No.....
2. Are folder-type cumulative-record forms used?     Yes..... No.....
3. Are records easily available to teachers, counselors, and other guidance workers?     Yes..... No.....
4. Are necessary supplementary record forms provided for counselors?     Yes..... No.....
5. Are anecdotal records used?     Yes..... No.....

### II. Occupational Information and Training Opportunities

1. Does the library contain an adequate number and variety of books about occupations?     Yes..... No.....
2. Is a separate "occupational shelf" provided?     Yes..... No.....
3. Are college, university, trade- and business-school catalogues selected on the basis of schools?     Yes..... No.....
4. Are catalogues selected on the basis of schools attended by former pupils?     Yes..... No.....
5. Are catalogues separately shelved?     Yes..... No.....

### III. Counseling

1. Is a complete file of data about each pupil available to counselors and teachers?     Yes..... No.....
2. Do counselors "know" each counselee?     Yes..... No.....
3. Do counselors recognize and take appropriate action concerning unusual talents, intense interests, and urgent problems of counselees?     Yes..... No.....
4. Do counselors assist each counselee to set up realizable educational and vocational plans?     Yes..... No.....
5. Do counselors assist with the planning of placement and follow-up services?     Yes..... No.....

## IV. PLACEMENT

1. Does the school operate a job-placement service for pupils?                              Yes..... No.....

2. A job-placement service for out-of-school youth?                                          Yes..... No.....

3. Does the school assist pupils to secure part-time and vacation employment in accordance with individual needs?                        Yes..... No.....

4. When necessary and desirable, are pupils assisted to withdraw from school and obtain employment?                                     Yes..... No.....

5. Does the school have a coöperative placement plan with employers and public placement agencies in the community?                      Yes..... No.....

## V. FOLLOW-UP

1. Does the school carry out systematic follow-up of school-leavers (graduates and drop-outs)?                                          Yes..... No.....

2. Does the school know the percentage of graduates who go on to college, where they go, and how long they stay?                        Yes..... No.....

3. Does the school keep information on the number of drop-outs, why they left school, and where they go?                                Yes..... No.....

4. Are all former pupils followed up, one, three, and five years after leaving school?            Yes..... No.....

5. Does the school have information on training opportunities utilized by former pupils for five years after they leave school?          Yes..... No.....

## VI. TEACHER PARTICIPATION

1. Does the library contain a reasonable number of professional guidance books and periodicals for teachers?                           Yes..... No.....

2. Do teachers feel that they have guidance responsibilities for pupils in their classes?       Yes..... No.....

3. Have at least half of the teachers in the school had one or more courses in guidance?        Yes..... No.....

4. Are teachers interested in taking advantage of in-service training opportunities in guidance?  Yes..... No.....

5. Do teachers attend guidance meetings and conferences when they have an opportunity?  Yes..... No.....

### VII. ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

1. Do school administrators, especially the principal, actively support the activities of the guidance program?  Yes..... No.....

2. Did the principal appoint a capable and qualified staff member to head up the guidance program?  Yes..... No.....

3. Does the principal recognize that he cannot delegate his personal responsibility for making the guidance program a success?  Yes..... No.....

4. Has the principal arranged the schedule to permit a minimum of one counseling period daily for each 100 pupils?  Yes..... No.....

5. Have adequate cumulative-record forms been provided?  Yes..... No.....

### Follow-Up Studies as a Technique of Evaluation

Generally the phrase "follow-up" refers to the use of techniques by which continuous information can be obtained regarding the growth, progress, and activities of students. The use of the term may also refer to students who are still in school. The uses made of the results of follow-up studies include curriculum revision, identification of persons who are in further need of guidance, assisting students to make vocational choices, and improvement of the guidance program.

It is useful to a school to know something about the adjustment of its students to educational pursuits, to vocational life, or to life in general. Opinions of students regarding the value of counseling received may also offer a clue to the effectiveness of a guidance program.

In administrating a follow-up study these techniques can be used:

1. The use of personal knowledge that classmates have of each other helps increase the percentage of former students supplying follow-up data.

2. The use of a questionnaire, supplemented by the interview when possible, to former students.

3. The community survey. Such a survey may include such information of former students as occupation, home conditions, recreation, and civic participation.

4. An incidental follow-up of pupils which counselors and teachers conduct as part of their normal activities in school. The purposes of such a procedure are usually to detect the effect of advice, to gather additional information, or to offer further assistance.

5. Informal and incidental contact with former students; e.g., collection of correspondence, participation in public forums, return school talks and discussions.

Because the "follow-up" study is essentially an evaluation technique it should contain certain salient characteristics. Such a study needs careful planning in which responsibility can be delegated, in which research will begin before the student leaves school, and in which the follow-up plan will be continuous for each class for at least five years. The procedures should include a follow-up questionnaire of at least 80 percent of the total leavers and graduating class, supplemented by personal interviews of an adequate sampling of each group. The results of the "follow-up" procedure should be coördinated with a post-school counseling service and be made available to all school personnel. Follow-up can be greatly facilitated if essential factual data are obtained at the time of school leaving, if significant items from each individual's return are transferred to his cumulative record card, and if clerical help can be secured in filing and recording data.

No standard pattern can be suggested for making follow-up studies since much depends upon the objectives, scope, sponsors, and available funds. An example of a follow-up questionnaire used in a state-wide study is reproduced on pages 619–625.

## FOLLOW-UP QUESTIONNAIRE
## OF FORMER HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS [1]

### A General Statement

You have been selected as one of the former high school students in Utah to help us evaluate and improve our high school program. Your high school is coöperating with the State School Office in conducting a state-wide follow-up study of former high school students who were in the 9th grade classes during the fall of 1936, 1946, and 1948. *Because you were a member of one of these groups, we need your help in answering this questionnaire promptly and accurately.* The data gathered will be kept confidential and will be used to help teachers and administrators develop better schools. Feel free to speak frankly on any item. Please read each question carefully and select as accurately as possible the one choice that best describes your situation. Be sure to check *only one*

[1] Utah State School Department of Education, State Superintendent of Schools, Salt Lake City, Utah.

choice in each question unless you are directed otherwise. In marking the question, be sure to check the number of the choice which is true in your case. For example:    1. What kind of books do you like best?

```
        1–1  Historical
    √   1–2  Scientific
        1–3  Non-fiction
        1–4  Biography
        1–5  Books on world affairs
```

If you like scientific books best, you would mark the question by putting a check next to the choice 1–2 which, as you see, indicates "scientific" books.

6–7. ..........................
    (Name of school sending questionnaire)

8. Check the year you were in the 9th grade:
    8–1  Fall of 1936
    8–2  Fall of 1946
    8–3  Fall of 1948

9. Indicate where you now live:
    9–1  In same town as your last high school
    9–2  Not in same town as last high school, but still in Utah
    9–3  In mountain states (Wyoming, Idaho, Montana, Colorado, Arizona, Nevada)
    9–4  In California
    9–5  In coast states other than California (Oregon, Washington)
    9–6  In middle United States
    9–7  In eastern United States
    9–8  In one of the territories of the U. S. not listed as one of the 48 states
    9–9  Outside the U. S. domain (give name of country)
    ..........................

10. Marital Status: (Check only one)
    10–1  Single (never been married)
    10–2  Married (only once)
    10–3  Separated and not divorced
    10–4  Divorced and remarried
    10–5  Divorced and not married
    10–6  Widowed and remarried

    10–7  Widowed and not remarried
    10–8  Married 2 or more times and now unmarried
    10–9  Married 3 or more times and now remarried

11. Age at first marriage:
    11–1  Not married
    11–2  16 years or under
    11–3  17–18 years
    11–4  19–20 years
    11–5  21–22 years
    11–6  23–24 years
    11–7  25–26 years
    11–8  27–28 years
    11–9  29 or older

12. Check the number of children you have had:
    12–1  No children
    12–2  One child
    12–3  Two children
    12–4  Three children
    12–5  Four children
    12–6  Five children
    12–7  Six children
    12–8  Seven children
    12–9  Eight children or more

13. Indicate the highest grade completed in junior or senior high school: (Check only one)
    13–1  Eighth grade
    13–2  Ninth grade
    13–3  Tenth grade
    13–4  Eleventh grade
    13–5  Twelfth grade, but not graduated
    13–6  Graduated from high school

14. Indicate number of years of college work completed:
    14-1 None
    14-2 One year or less completed
    14-3 Two years completed
    14-4 Three years completed
    14-5 Four years completed, but no degree
    14-6 B.S. or B.A. Degree
    14-7 Five years, but no Master's Degree
    14-8 Master's Degree
    14-9 Doctor's Degree

15. Check the one most important kind of additional schooling you have had since leaving high school: (Check only one)
    15-1 No additional schooling
    15-2 Correspondence course
    15-3 Trade school
    15-4 Business school
    15-5 *Apprenticeship training*
    15-6 Basic military training
    15-7 Armed Forces Institute training
    15-8 College training
    15-9 Other (please list) ....
    ........................
    ........................

16. *Present employment status: (Check only the one you consider your most important activity)*
    16-1 Full-time business for self
    16-2 Working for pay full time, but not in business for self
    16-3 Working for pay part-time
    16-4 *In school full time*
    16-5 *In school part-time*
    16-6 *Housewife not otherwise employed*
    16-7 *In Armed Forces*
    16-8 Unemployed but looking for work
    16-9 Unemployed because of disability or illness

17. Answer *Only If You Are Employed Full Time:*
    What is your present job title:
    ........................

(*Please indicate specifically by writing in the appropriate name of the job, such as: housewife, farmer, truck driver, teacher, salesman, laborer, business manager, lawyer, carpenter, accountant, machinist, clerk, etc.*)
Please describe the type of work you are doing: ...........

18. Who helped you most in getting your first full-time job after leaving school?
    18-1 Parents .. .. -
    18-2 Other relatives or friends
    18-3 High School Counselor
    18-4 *High School Placement Officer*
    18-5 Principal or Teacher
    18-6 *State Employment Office*
    18-7 Private Employment Office
    18-8 No help received
    18-9 Other ..............

19. Approximately how many full-time jobs, with different employers, have you had since leaving high school?
    19-1 0 jobs
    19-2 1-3 jobs
    19-3 4-7 jobs
    19-4 8-11 jobs
    19-5 12-14 jobs
    19-6 15-17 jobs
    19-7 18-20 jobs
    19-8 21-23 jobs
    19-9 24 jobs or over

20. What will be your approximate yearly earnings for 1953? (Check only one)
    20-1 Not employed full time
    20-2 Less than $2,000
    20-3 $2,000 to $2,999
    20-4 $3,000 to $3,999
    20-5 $4,000 to $4,999
    20-6 $5,000 to $5,999
    20-7 $6,000 to $6,999
    20-8 $7,000 to $7,999
    20-9 $8,000 or more

21. Answer *Only If Employed: How well satisfied are you with your present job?*
    21-1 Very well satisfied

21–2  Well satisfied  ·
21–3  Satisfied
21–4  Not too well satisfied
21–5  Dissatisfied

22. If you have served in the Armed
Forces, indicate amount of time
spent:
    22–1  Have not served in
          Armed Forces

22–2  1–6 months
22–3  7–12 months
22–4  13–18 months
22–5  19–24 months
22–6  25–30 months
22–7  31–36 months
22–8  37–43 months
22–9  More than 43 months

23. If you have served in the Armed Forces, indicate the highest rank obtained:
    23–1  Less than Non-Commissioned Officer
    23–2  Non-Commissioned Officer
    23–3  Warrant Officer
    23–4  Commissioned Officer

24–28. Check the number of clubs, organizations, and special activities in which
you participated at some time during your high school attendance. (Count
as one each different class or leadership position you held.)

| Kind of Club or Organization | Number of Positions or Memberships | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 or More |
| 24. Student Body or Class Officer (President, Vice-president, Student Council, Home-room or Class Officer, etc.) Count each Office as one. | | | | | | | | | |
| 25. Service Groups (School newspaper staff, yearbook, prom committee, class party or service committees, etc.) | | | | | | | | | |
| 26. Professional or Academic Clubs and Activities (Band, orchestra, dramatic groups, debating, science clubs, F.H.A., F.F.A., etc.) | | | | | | | | | |
| 27. Athletic Activity or Groups (School or class teams in each kind of competitive sport, etc.) | | | | | | | | | |
| 28. Social Groups (School social clubs, neighborhood social clubs, bridge clubs, etc.) | | | | | | | | | |

29–34.  Check the number of clubs or organizations of each type listed below in which you currently hold active membership in the community. (Count each position as one.)

| Kind of Club or Organization | Number of Positions or Memberships | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 or More |
| 29. Political and Community Activity (Mayor, legislator, commissioner, delegate, political chairman, etc.) | | | | | | | | | |
| 30. Service Clubs (Rotary, Lions, Jr. Chamber of Commerce, Women's legislative group, etc.) | | | | | | | | | |
| 31. Professional or Trade Groups (Literary, medical, educational, etc.) | | | | | | | | | |
| 32. Recreational or Social Groups (Neighborhood social clubs, hobby, sporting, athletic clubs, etc.) | | | | | | | | | |
| 33. Fraternal Organizations (Lodges, veteran groups, etc.) | | | | | | | | | |
| 34. Church Groups (Sunday School, Newman Club, Y.W.C.A., Y.M.C.A., Channing Club, C.Y. Hi, etc.) | | | | | | | | | |

21–2 Well satisfied
21–3 Satisfied
21–4 Not too well satisfied
21–5 Dissatisfied

22. If you have served in the Armed
Forces, indicate amount of time
spent:
    22–1 Have not served in
         Armed Forces

22–2 1–6 months
22–3 7–12 months
22–4 13–18 months
22–5 19–24 months
22–6 25–30 months
22–7 31–36 months
22–8 37–43 months
22–9 More than 43 months

23. If you have served in the Armed Forces, indicate the highest rank obtained:
    23–1 Less than Non-Commissioned Officer
    23–2 Non-Commissioned Officer
    23–3 Warrant Officer
    23–4 Commissioned Officer

24–28. Check the number of clubs, organizations, and special activities in which
you participated at some time during your high school attendance. (Count
as one each different class or leadership position you held.)

| Kind of Club or Organization | Number of Positions or Memberships | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 or More |
| 24. Student Body or Class Officer (President, Vice-president, Student Council, Homeroom or Class Officer, etc.) Count each Office as one. | | | | | | | | | |
| 25. Service Groups (School newspaper staff, yearbook, prom committee, class party or service committees, etc.) | | | | | | | | | |
| 26. Professional or Academic Clubs and Activities (Band, orchestra, dramatic groups, debating, science clubs, F.H.A., F.F.A., etc.) | | | | | | | | | |
| 27. Athletic Activity or Groups (School or class teams in each kind of competitive sport, etc.) | | | | | | | | | |
| 28. Social Groups (School social clubs, neighborhood social clubs, bridge clubs, etc.) | | | | | | | | | |

29-34. Check the number of clubs or organizations of each type listed below in which you currently hold active membership in the community. (Count each position as one.)

| Kind of Club or Organization | Number of Positions or Memberships | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 or More |
| 29. Political and Community Activity (Mayor, legislator, commissioner, delegate, political chairman, etc.) | | | | | | | | | |
| 30. Service Clubs (Rotary, Lions, Jr. Chamber of Commerce, Women's legislative group, etc.) | | | | | | | | | |
| 31. Professional or Trade Groups (Literary, medical, educational, etc.) | | | | | | | | | |
| 32. Recreational or Social Groups (Neighborhood social clubs, hobby, sporting, athletic clubs, etc.) | | | | | | | | | |
| 33. Fraternal Organizations (Lodges, veteran groups, etc.) | | | | | | | | | |
| 34. Church Groups (Sunday School, Newman Club, Y.W.C.A., Y.M.C.A., Channing Club, C.Y. Hi, etc.) | | | | | | | | | |

35–41. Please indicate the extent to which you think the following statements were characteristic of your school. (Check only one for each statement.)

|  | Excellent | Good | Fair | Poor | Very Poor | No Opinion |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 35. Smooth and orderly administration |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 36. Students recognized by faculty and administration in planning of school activities |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 37. Friendly and understanding faculty |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 38. Students recognized by teachers in planning classroom work |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 39. Quality of instruction of teachers |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 40. Discipline in the school |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 41. Buildings and facilities |  |  |  |  |  |  |

42–61. In the items listed below, will you please think through and indicate how well you think your high school has helped you in each area. (Check only one for each item.)

| . . . | A Great Deal | Considerable (less than great, more than some) | Some | Little | No Opinion |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 42. Using your spare time | | | | | |
| 43. Taking care of your health | | | | | |
| 44. Understanding the responsibilities of citizenship | | | | | |
| 45. Taking part in community and civic affairs | | | | | |
| 46. Preparing for marriage and family life | | | | | |
| 47. Choosing a vocation | | | | | |
| 48. Securing a job | | | | | |
| 49. Getting along with other people | | | | | |
| 50. Preparing for further education | | | | | |
| 51. Understanding your abilities and interests | | | | | |
| 52. Ability to use good English in speaking and writing | | | | | |
| 53. Using basic mathematical skills | | | | | |
| 54. Ability to read better and understand the printed page | | | | | |
| 55. Develop saleable vocational skills | | | | | |
| 56. Using your money wisely | | | | | |
| 57. Conducting your own business affairs | | | | | |
| 58. Thinking through and adjusting to personal problems | | | | | |
| 59. Understanding science as it applies to everyday living | | | | | |
| 60. Appreciation of beauty in music, literature, art, etc. | | | | | |
| 61. Appreciation of the moral and spiritual values in life | | | | | |

62–63. If you had full say as to what
high school subjects or
courses should be added or
given in larger amounts in
today's high school, what
subjects would you add or
strengthen?

.................................................
.................................................
.................................................

64–65. If you had full say as to what
subjects should be eliminated
from high school or given less
attention, what subjects would
you *eliminate or reduce?*

.................................................
.................................................
.................................................

66–67. If you had full say as to what
special activities or special
services should be added or
expanded in school, what
would you add or expand?

(By special services or activities we
mean such things as counseling, voca-
tional placement, health services, school
lunch, competitive athletics, dramatics,
social clubs, various kinds of recrea-
tional activities, professional clubs,
etc.)

.................................................
.................................................
.................................................

68–69. If you had full say as to what
special activities should be
done away with or reduced in
school, what would you do
away with or reduce?

(By special services or activities we
mean such things as counseling, voca-
tional placement, health services, school
lunch, competitive athletics, dramatics,
social clubs, various kinds of recrea-
tional activities, professional clubs,
etc.)

.................................................
.................................................
.................................................

70–71. If you left high school before
graduation, please give impor-
tant reasons for leaving. (List
in the order of importance to
you.)
1. ..........................
2. ..........................
3. ..........................
4. ..........................

72–73. As you reflect upon your high
school experiences, what was
the most important contribu-
tion made to your life by
school?

.................................................
.................................................
.................................................

74–77. If you have any suggestions
you would care to make which
you think might help the
school be of greater service to
the people now in school,
please write them below.

.................................................
.................................................
.................................................
.................................................
.................................................

78–79. Age at present: ............

80.  Sex:
      80–1 Male
      80–2 Female

Your name: (Check one)
..... Mr.
..... Mrs.
..... Miss Last name 1st name Initial
List maiden name if Mrs. ...........
Birth date ........................
        Month    Day    Year
We would appreciate receiving this
questionnaire within a week. A stamped
return envelope is enclosed. Please ac-
cept our sincere appreciation for your
help and suggestions.
Return To:
        High School ..........
        Address ............

The reader will note that this questionnaire is typical in its attempt to obtain items of information which can lead to analysis of:

1. Occupational distribution of school-leavers and number employed.
2. Increase or decrease in employment in occupations.
3. Degree of occupational adjustment, (a) time elapsed between school leaving and employment; (b) influence of age, sex, intelligence, health, school achievement, home background, and marital status on occupational adjustment; (c) success or failure of non-graduates in employment.
4. School training and vocational success: (a) extent to which former students are engaged in the vocations they had in mind in school, (b) degree of value of in-school vocational training, (c) ways in which students feel their school training has been most beneficial, (d) ways in which the school has failed to meet educational or vocational needs.
5. Earnings of school-leavers in their occupations including beginning salary.
6. Factors which have hindered progress in vocations: (a) illness or accident, (b) occupational conditions, (c) war, (d) migration.
7. Extent of post-high school study: (a) higher education, (b) trade schools. The information should include the type and amount of supplementary training needed to hold the present position or to progress in it, or the training needed to secure a job.[2]

## Planning a Follow-Up Study

As in all evaluative techniques the follow-up study must be democratically planned. Committee organization has generally been adapted. The potential results of the study should be considered in order of their importance in evaluating the effectiveness of the school curriculum, the guidance services, and the instruction. The guidance services may be evaluated in terms of aiding school-leavers to make personal and family adjustments, to secure additional training, and to secure adequate occupational placement.

The scope and technique of the follow-up study requires careful consideration: (1) What geographic area is to be included; e.g., single school, city, county, state? (2) What school-leavers in the community will be included; e.g., all school-leavers, leavers for the last two or five years, boys only, samples or total-leavers? (3) What method shall be used in gathering information; e.g., questionnaire delivered by mail,

[2] These items have been revised from A. E. Traxler, *Techniques of Guidance*, New York, Harper & Brothers, 1945, p. 319.

teachers, community volunteers, pupils, or siblings? If the interviews are to be used who will serve as interviewers: e.g., counselors, teachers, parents, employers? Will the interview be through personal contact, telephone, or a combination of methods? (4) How will in-school pupils be prepared for future follow-up studies: e.g., class meetings, subject classes, home-room, interviewing of future drop-outs?

Early in the initial planning careful consideration must also be given to determine the work schedule and cost. The time of the year for making the study and the approximate time for it to be completed should be set; personnel to be involved are selected; coöperative agencies are to be considered in initiating the study are organized. The budget should include such items as postage, mimeographing, printing, and clerical assistance.

A committee should prepare a proposed form for the questionnaire after a trial with selected school-leavers; summary sheets should be adopted; personalized letters should be considered; and a manual of instructions should be prepared for interviews. Personnel should be carefully trained for the tasks, and the entire school staff and community should be prepared by group discussions of purposes and values.

After data have been collected three significant tasks remain: (1) tabulating data, (2) interpreting data and preparing reports, and (3) using the findings of the study. The final report should be presented in an interesting, concise, and objective manner—a brief description of procedures, and recommendations for further action. The results may be used by faculty study groups, by school administrative bodies, and by committees appointed to make revisions of curriculum or change of guidance practices.

## Evaluating the Effects of Counseling

Counseling is a limited aspect of guidance but is generally considered as the basic service in the program. Because considerable attention was given to the evaluation of the effects of counseling in chapter 12, we shall be brief in discussing the techniques here. Reference shall be limited to the most important studies and reviews. All of the techniques commonly used to evaluate the entire guidance program can be employed to evaluate the effects of counseling. Specific methods can be listed as: (1) obtaining opinions from those who have been counseled, (2) evaluation of the generalized guidance program, (3) evalu-

ation by faculty and administration, (4) evaluation by other counseling specialists, (5) evaluation by group changes, (6) evaluation through long-range follow-up studies.

## CLIENT OPINIONS

What satisfaction does the client feel with his counseling? Attempts to evaluate by this departure have been made by Mellon (21), Compton (8), McKinney (20), Bailey (2), Paterson and Clark (25). Travers (29) criticizes the technique by saying it can hardly be conceded that feelings of satisfaction with counseling can be considered either a major goal of the procedure or evidence of its success. The mere fact that the counselee says he feels satisfied is not evidence of the desirability of the process. A counselor can judge his counselees' estimate of him and the total counseling process after observing a wide range of cues such as the counselee's visual fixation on the counselor, his apparent eagerness to believe everything the counselor says, or a complete rejection by vehement denunciation. This is a rating based on behavior rather than verbal expression.

Another indication of counselee opinion is the number of their friends who seek help from a counselor in whom confidence has been established. Many counselees also keep in touch with a favored counselor by occasional visits or correspondence.

## EVALUATION OF GENERAL GUIDANCE PROGRAM

The evaluation of the general guidance program will include counselor competencies and the counseling service. The general educational climate of the school and of the community are important factors in determining the effectiveness of counseling.

## EVALUATION BY FACULTY AND ADMINISTRATION

Faculty and administrators will continuously appraise the effectiveness of counseling. Such judgment is generally biased and reflects not only educational philosophy but also the frequency with which use is made of clinical centers such as speech, reading, health, and psychiatry. Administrators can encourage counseling by making favorable reports of its values to students, parents, alumni, and the community. Favor can be encouraged by providing the administrator with accurate and ample data about students.

EVALUATION BY OTHER COUNSELING SPECIALISTS

Evaluation by other counseling specialists is best made in the case-conference procedures where a counselor presents one or more cases in detail to a staff including other counselors, psychologist, psychiatrist, physician, social worker, school administrator, and teacher. The counselor and his work are judged "on the spot." The counselor will be assessed on the adequacy of his data, his skill in the use of tools and techniques, his diagnosis, prognosis, and soundness of counsel.

A counselor may be judged by any specialist who reads his case histories, records, test profiles, and informal notes. Can he identify the counselee's major problem? Does he establish and maintain rapport? Does he make proper referral? Are his records complete?

EVALUATION BY MEASUREMENT OF GROUP CHANGES [3]

This technique attempts to measure changes occurring in a single group of students undergoing counseling. The procedure may require pre-tests, preliminary interviews, autobiographical assignments, and so on. At the end of the counseling period post-tests, interviews, biographical accounts, etc. are repeated and changes noted. A more effectively controlled variation of this method is to use a matching-pattern design of those counseled and not counseled.

EVALUATION THROUGH LONG-RANGE FOLLOW-UP STUDIES

In such studies the behavior and activities of counselees after counseling are followed for the longest period of time possible. Data are continuously checked with facts on the cumulative record. As these studies grow in number we shall have an increasingly valid and reliable evaluation of the counseling process.

## SUMMARY

Evaluation is an essential feature of an effective guidance program. Because guidance is an intricate and complex process in which the results are often intangible, long-delayed, and difficult to isolate, few studies have direct value.

Those guidance specialists who think guidance is essentially a learn-

[3] The reader is referred to chapter 12 for a more detailed discussion of research studies employing this procedure.

ing situation would apply the same principles, procedures, and techniques to evaluation of counseling as those applied to education in general (29). The schools are currently measuring the outcomes of the traditional subject-matter disciplines as well as behavorial outcomes of a wide range of educational experiences. The evaluation of the counseling process itself rather than achievement of outcomes in terms of stated goals or objectives takes a different departure from the evaluation of learning. Nevertheless, evaluation of process can be considered in terms of objectives; such objectives may differ only in specificity.

The evaluation program should be a coöperative venture, with counselors, teachers, administrator, students, and parents participating. It must be adapted to the local situation and based on the objectives of the school program. The utilization of a variety of techniques and instruments, including paper and pencil tests, observation, projective tests, attitude tests, and rating scales must be used. Evaluation must be a continuous process and closely integrated with instruction.

The evaluation procedure may be given in a series of statements of: (1) objectives, (2) the scope of guidance activities, (3) the needs of pupils, and (4) criteria developed for use in evaluation of a guidance program. These criteria are: adjustment to the school, adjustment in social situations, personal or self adjustment, self-appraisal, life planning and effective use of information therein, teacher-pupil relationships, and evaluative reactions of teachers and pupils.

A summary of the evaluation procedures for determining the effectiveness of counseling are (32):

1. *Case work method*, in which individual cases are described and evaluated by a common-sense judgment regarding the adjustment brought about. (Used by psychiatrists) Criteria: Client satisfaction with his own adjustment, psychiatrist's judgment, and client adjustment to his total life situation.

2. *Scholastic adjustment method.* When grades are used as the criterion we must recognize the weaknesses of: lack of comparability, the low predictive value for success, and complex factors which cannot be treated by counselors. (Such as low mental ability)

3. *Recording student satisfaction with diagnosis, advice, and counsel.* The criterion here would be the degree of satisfaction.

4. *Recording changes in attitudes of students toward diagnosis, advice, and counsel.* Student attitude is the criterion used.

Evaluation of counseling and the guidance program in general is not a casual process. The demands of careful and rigorous case reading, days and weeks of clinical and statistical work, and time for cases to mature to an evaluative state add to the difficulty. Guidance is concerned with the entire personality of the individual—a unitary process which cannot be separated by any logical analysis into different aspects.

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